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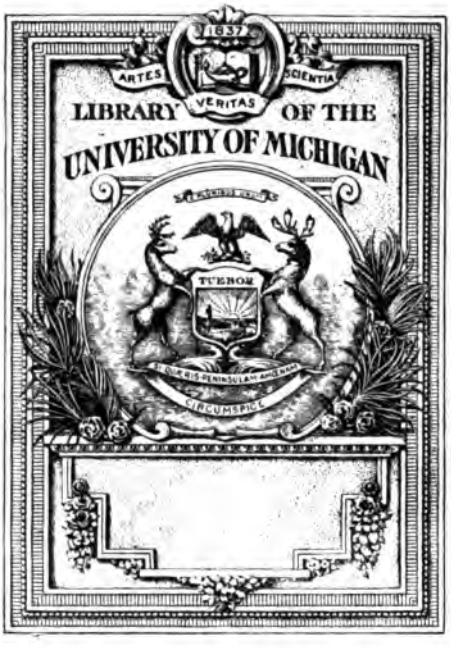
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THE

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VOL. IV.

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THE UNITED STATES

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VOL. IV. APRIL 1, 1826. No. 1.

REVIEWS.

Remarks on the Banks and Currency of the New England States; in which an Attempt is made to show the Public Benefits resulting from the System pursued by the Allied Banks in Boston. First published in the Boston Daily Advertiser. Boston. 1826. 8vo. pp. 40.

THIS judicious little tract relates to banking operations of very extensive influence upon the paper currency of New England. The subject has been much discussed in the newspapers, sometimes by impartial, but more often we apprehend by interested persons. Among the mercantile classes, it has, of course, been regarded with deep attention, and with friendly or hostile feelings, according to the situation of individuals. We consider it one of those phenomena in the commercial world, which, however local and temporary in character, deserve mature reflection as questions of political economy.

The object of the tract is to collect certain of the facts, and to present in a connected view, the reasons which tend to vindicate the policy pursued by the *Allied Banks*. These facts and reasons, it appears to us, make out a conclusive defence of their system, so far as the public good is concerned. We think a few plain statements will exhibit the truth in a clear light.

A common bank-note is the promise of the bank to pay so much money to the holder on demand. Of itself, it possesses no value. Its general currency arises from the faith of the public in the ability of the bank, which issues it, to redeem it with specie, according to its tenor; and in its superior convenience to gold and silver as a medium of exchange. The currency of the notes of a particular bank at a particular place will depend partly

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upon the nearness of the bank to that place, as well as upon the credit of the bank. The more remote the bank, the more difficult is its convertibility into specie, and the greater, on that account, its depreciation below par value.

Within the immediate sphere of any great commercial city the value of foreign bank-notes will be governed mainly by their value in that city. And the accumulation of capital in such a place, united with its wide-spread dealings, and the better knowledge of banking likely to exist in it, must of necessity give superior value to its bank-notes, if business be left to regulate itself.

Hence the distinction between foreign money and home money, which makes the former pass in exchange at a discount from its nominal value.

Now previously to a year ago the state of the money market in Boston, which controlled that of the banks in its immediate vicinity, was, on this account, extremely inconvenient to the whole community. The remote country banks made immoderate issues of bills, which they forced into the market, by the agency of brokers. These bills circulated as the ordinary currency of trade, in full credit, but were refused at the Boston banks either as deposite or in payment of debts. The consequence of this was, that Boston bills never remained in circulation. Merchants being obliged to deposite or pay them alone at the Boston banks, they were bought up at a premium for that purpose, while foreign bills were the universal medium of traffic. All payments to merchants in Boston, made by retailers in the country, were in this degraded currency, as were all ordinary small transactions among persons in Boston. The rate of discount at which foreign bills were bought and sold, that is, the premium on Boston money, varied at different periods from two per cent. to a half or three fourths of one per cent.; and the amount daily exchanged is rated in the pamphlet before us at a hundred thousand dollars. The evils of this state of things were great and numerous. It evidently impeded the operations of trade, by creating a necessity for an additional exchange. It occasioned a great loss to the city merchant in the premium paid by him for Boston bills. A single merchant has been known to pay eighteen hundred dollars in one year for exchanging current money. This loss, too, went to give the foreign banks, whose notes were at a discount, a most iniquitous species of gain. They themselves bought their own bills at a discount, and immediately issued them again at par; thus deriving profit from the very debasement of their notes. Again, a part of the profit of banking, it is well understood, is the saving

of interest on money by the issue of bank-notes to represent it. Now the system, which we have described, tempted the foreign banks to force their notes into circulation, beyond the amount of their capital or their ability to redeem. Many of them, of course, became bankrupt, with a large quantity of their paper in circulation, to the heavy loss of the public. Examples of the fact occur in the cases of the Northampton, Hallowell and Augusta, Penobscot, and Berkshire banks.

Now the remedy for all these evils, and others which might be enumerated, was apparent. It was to raise the foreign bills to par. And the mode of effecting this important end was perfectly simple. It was for the Boston banks to accept the country notes in payment of debts or in deposite, which would at once annihilate the distinction between foreign money and city money. All would then be alike, and all equal to specie. Eight of the Boston banks associated to adopt this course. We copy their arrangements from the pamphlet before us.

They simply agreed each to receive at par in all payments from their customers, the bills of all the banks in good credit in the New England states; thus making country money equal in value to Boston money, and saving to their customers the tax heretofore levied in the shape of a premium for Boston money. It would not of course be expected that the bills so received would be held on hand for a long time, or that they would be paid out again to supply the circulation of the town. Nor was it necessary that each bank should employ its messengers in carrying the bills home. An agreement was therefore made, that the Suffolk bank should take the sole charge of carrying the bills home, or procuring them to be redeemed in such manner as they should see fit. The country bills received by the other allied banks, in pursuance of this agreement, are daily paid over to the Suffolk bank, and received by them at par, as so much Boston money. The money so received by the Suffolk bank, must necessarily absorb a considerable amount of its capital. To indemnify it for this investment of capital, and for the expenses of procuring the country bills to be redeemed, the allied banks each lend to the Suffolk bank, without interest, a sum of money agreed upon, as an equivalent for the sacrifice. This we understand to be the nature of the *Holy Alliance* of banks, against which so many attempts have been made to excite the prejudices of the community. It is an arrangement of perhaps doubtful advantage to the parties, so far as direct pecuniary emolument is concerned, but of vast benefit to the public, in facilitating the transactions of business, in protecting a portion of the community from a constant and most unreasonable tax, and the whole community against occasional enormous losses.

The country bills received by the allied banks, are only received from their customers, in the regular course of business; and for the most part, when, under the old system, they would have been under the necessity of paying a premium, to procure the exchange of them into Boston money. They are received as equivalent to specie, and as soon as received, the bank becomes bound to pay the amount in specie, if demanded. For this advance of funds, it can only be indemnified, by procuring the redemption of the bills received as expeditiously as possible, either in specie, or in other funds equivalent thereto. The only mode of legally enforcing this redemption, is by presenting them at the banks which issue them, and demanding specie. Such a demand every holder of a bill, whether an individual or a bank, has not only a legal, but the most equitable right to make, and every imputation of harshness or oppression in such a procedure is entirely unfounded, because the bank issuing the bill has received a full equivalent for it, and promised to repay it whenever demanded, and the bank making the demand has paid a full equivalent, perhaps some days or weeks in advance.

But it is unnecessary in most cases, where the parties are disposed to accommodate on equal terms, that one should be put to the trouble and expense of demanding the specie, or that the other should be put to the inconvenience of having it withdrawn. It is, however, necessary that the terms of the accommodation should be such that the bank which receives the bills here, and permits them to be redeemed without the actual payment of specie, shall be secured against any abuse of the credit thus given to the other bank, so as in fact to trade upon the capital of the bank here. An arrangement has in fact been made between the Suffolk bank and a large proportion of the country banks, which is believed to be mutually advantageous. The purport of the arrangement is this; the bank in the country, as a condition of not being called on to redeem in specie the bills received by the Suffolk bank, agrees to deposite a small sum, without interest, varying, according to the amount of bills of the particular bank in circulation here, from two thousand to five thousand dollars, and in consideration of this deposite, is permitted to redeem its bills at the Suffolk bank, at stated periods, by the remittance of any species of current bills whatever, either of Boston or country banks. The general tendency of this arrangement, is to give to each bank the benefit of the principal circulation of its own neighbourhood, and to direct them on their way homeward, when they fall within the natural sphere of the circulation of some other bank.

Our author calculates, from satisfactory data, that the amount annually saved already in premiums in Boston by this system, is not less than $120,000. Another instance of its beneficial

operation occurred in the total failure of the Eagle Bank of New Haven. The *allied banks* sent home $132,000 of Eagle notes a short time before that bank failed, all which, but for this, would have remained in circulation, and been a dead loss to the community. The debased currency is now driven from the market, and the notes of Boston banks have acquired much more extended circulation. The currency of every considerable town now consists either of Boston money, or its own bills, or those of some neighbouring bank; whilst only a year since, nothing was to be seen in the common business of life but foreign bills, forced into circulation by foreign banks, of whose credit, capital, or management we had little certain knowledge, and what little we did have was of a nature to create distrust rather than inspire confidence. It is natural enough for these banks to raise a clamour against a system, which curtails their issues, and compels them to confine their banking within the limits of their capital and a just credit. But the public gains by all this; and the public ought to be firm in the support and countenance of the associated banks, who, at the charge of so much obloquy to themselves, have effected this happy revolution in our currency.

We feel assured this system will be approved the more, the better it is understood. In truth all the sound country banks, who have been accustomed to trade safely, are benefited by the change. We can speak from our own knowledge of several Essex banks. The very intelligent editor of the Portsmouth Journal has borne evidence to the utility of the system in that place; and the following extract from the New Hampshire Patriot (Concord, N. H.) shows that the advantage has been felt and appreciated at a still greater distance from Boston.

Interested as we are in one of the country banks, we will take the liberty to remark, that whatever may have been the motives of the Boston folks in requiring the country banks to redeem their bills with specie in Boston, *the effect of the measure is a decided benefit to the public interest.* It is true, the banks at a distance cannot now circulate their hundred thousands with little or no specie capital to redeem them; it is true, those banks can no longer command and wield a fictitious capital for their own benefit,—a capital to which they have no more right than any and every poor man in the community. The Boston arrangement is calculated to introduce a sound currency; and if persevered in, it will compel every bank, country and city, to keep its business within the bounds of its capital. It is likewise calculated to throw out of circulation in every local vicinity that mass of bills on banks at a distance,

which their directors have been industrious to circulate. Eight months ago our circulation consisted almost exclusively of bills of the New Haven, Hartford, Burlington, Hallowell, and other Eastern bills; now these bills are almost entirely thrown out of circulation, and we have in their place either Boston, or Essex, or our own bills. Instead of the bills of banks at places where we did no business, we have the bills of those banks where we do our business, and where we have confidence. We cannot believe it to be either for the public interest or for that of the sound, specie-paying banks, to change the present system.

A very idle objection to this plan has been most loudly urged by the enemies of the associated banks, namely, that it will diminish the trade of Boston. This, we confess, passes our comprehension. If the inhabitants of New Haven or Burlington, whose bills have been displaced from the market by Boston money, did their business in Boston, there might be a shadow of plausibility in the allegation. But even in that case, it would have been utterly fallacious. Why should a country trader in Burlington complain, that the note of his bank is worth as much in Boston as it is in Burlington? Wherein is the trader injured? Is it not, on the contrary, for his benefit? Formerly the note of the country bank was degraded. The trader found the bills of his bank at a discount when he carried them to Boston; but now they are what they ought to be, the faithful representative of so much specie. How this should operate to the injury of the country trader, or induce him to transfer his business from Boston to New York or elsewhere, is, if true, a thing to us completely inscrutable.

The History of New England, from 1630 *to* 1649. By John Winthrop, First Governor of Massachusetts. With Notes by James Savage. With an elegant Engraving of the Author. Vol. I. Boston. 8vo. pp.

We think that every intelligent and patriotic citizen, that every one who has any of the blood of the first settlers of New England flowing in his veins, or who rejoices in our wise and free institutions, the fruit of their principles, of their love of truth, and of their fidelity to conscience, must approve of all attempts to elucidate our early history, and to preserve even the names and deeds of each individual. And this, not so much to gratify any feelings of personal vanity, on account of our descent from those

heroic and virtuous men, as from a desire to know all the events, even the most minute, which were connected with the first permanent settlement of civilized Englishmen on the soil of New England. Nor is it, that we of the present generation, in this section of the country, would take to ourselves any peculiar merit, or claim any special rights, because of our relation to such eminent men; or, of our residence on the spot celebrated as the place of their early abode. For our privileges, however great, the praise belongs not to us; but to our fathers. But if we do not appreciate their principles and their institutions, nor honour their memories, the charge of criminal neglect and indifference may justly be brought against us; and many events be buried in oblivion which we might preserve on the faithful page of history for posterity.

The knowledge of events of this kind are sometimes soon lost, beyond the possibility of recovery. The inhabitants of Portsmouth, in New Hampshire, are in doubt when the first permanent settlement was effected at that place and vicinity. Thompson, they know, was there in 1623; but the month is uncertain, though probably it was May or June. Nor is it certain, how long he continued there. In 1624, he was found on an island in Boston Bay; where, it appears, he remained for some time. The settlement of the Hiltons at the head of the tide waters of the Piscataqua, at a place since called Dover, a short time after, is, indeed, well ascertained. But there is still matter of unsatisfied curiosity with the best informed people in that part of the country, as to some dates and characters, which they wish more fully to learn. Little is known of Purchase, who was early at Pejepscot, on the Androscoggin,—probably at Brunswick Falls, or a little higher up the river. He sold his possession to Massachusetts, in 1636.

We know that the coast, from Cape Cod to Penobscot, was visited by the English as well as the French for several seasons successively, before 1620, for the purpose of fishing; and that they erected temporary stages or hovels on the land. This was done by the English at Damiscove, near the mouth of Sheepscott river, in latitude 44°; at the mouth of Piscataqua river; at Cape Ann; and some other places. Blaxton, or Blackston, who had fixed his residence on the northwestern part of the peninsula of Boston (afterwards so called), when Governor Winthrop and company came over in 1630, and who had been resident on the spot probably about eight years, was left, no doubt, by one of the vessels, which occasionally visited this coast, for the purpose of fishing or discovery. According to Prince, an English vessel

came into Boston harbour in 1622, before the settlement at Wessagussett by Weston, and visited several islands and some places on the main land. Captain Standish was here in 1621; but makes no mention of Blackston. But when Winthrop came, he had been here between eight and nine years. Captain Dermer was also probably in Boston Bay in 1619. He entered several harbours along the coast between Cape Ann and Cape Cod, particularly Plymouth, and travelled into the country westward. Blackston had fruit trees in his inclosure, which must have been planted several years. But the manner of his coming to this place is not known.

The people of Plymouth were in the habit of going to Damiscove and to Piscataqua, to obtain provisions of the vessels, which visited those places from England. Bradford, Winslow, and Standish, in their turn, went for these purposes; and the two last named went several times. Many events which took place in Virginia, upon its early settlement by Captain John Smith, are involved in much obscurity. If more had been carefully preserved respecting individuals, among the first planters of that colony, it would have afforded useful information. The important facts are known; but more of detail would have been gratifying to the present generation.

The Journal of events connected with the early settlement of Massachusetts, kept by Governor Winthrop, is a very interesting and valuable record, with which every one ought to be acquainted, who would learn all the transactions worthy of recollection in the first days of New England. We learn from it, not merely the dates of events and the names of many individuals, who were active and useful in the original plantations; but much of the peculiar sentiments and customs of those revered men, to whose wisdom, piety, and brave adventure we owe so large a debt.

All the important acts of the civil government and of the church were also recorded by Winthrop, with great accuracy, fidelity, and impartiality. No one can justly be excused for neglecting to peruse this volume. We should preserve it for our children, that they may know the true characters of the men from whom they have descended, and be familiar with every event in their eventful lives.

We are now, indeed, numerous and powerful; they were few and weak, many of them poor, and all had been persecuted, or treated with neglect, as fanatics or bigots. Yet they were honest, brave, and pious men; and they founded a colony, which has proved the germ of a mighty nation. We cannot study their lives too much, nor be too familiar with their early history.

The copious notes by the industrious editor of this work are highly valuable. They were wanted to make the journal a perfect history of the first twenty-eight years of the plantation. Winthrop did not foresee what an interest we should feel, two hundred years after his days, to know every particular and individual transaction; and he therefore related very little of personal anecdote or of family connexions. No man, perhaps, in the community would have performed the important service of supplying these deficiences so completely, or with such singular fidelity and accuracy, as the editor of this volume. The present generation is much indebted to him for his labours. Posterity will certainly appreciate them.

It is objected, we know, by some, that the notes are too particular and minute. We do not think so. We like to know all that can be collected from any book, or publication, or record existing, of the individuals mentioned in the Journal, who acted a useful part in this early settlement. Besides, the anecdotes given of them throw much light upon some important events incidentally related; and serve to develope the characters and feelings of the puritan fathers of New England.

We have perused the notes to the first volume, which is the only one yet published; and have not been able to detect an error or unfounded assertion of any importance. There is a mistake, we believe, in the observation, that the Hon. George Partridge descended from the Rev. Ralph Partridge, the first minister of Duxbury. And it is said, also, that "little could be ascertained of Rev. Mr Jones, one of the first teachers or pastors of Concord church;" whereas Johnson, in his "Wonder-working Providence of Zion's Saviour," gives a particular account of the first settlement of that town in 1636; when Bulkley and Jones were ordained over the church. Jones is honoured by the writer of that quaint-titled book with some lines; not, indeed, of any poetic merit, but expressive of his high opinion of the piety and virtue of the character he eulogizes. Mr Jones soon left Concord, and settled in Connecticut, in the vicinity of New Haven. As impartial reviewers, we feel it our duty to speak, in unqualified terms, in praise of the correctness and fulness of the notes; and to bear our testimony to the industry and research of the editor. He must have perused all other printed histories with attention; and examined the manuscript records of the State and of the city of Boston. We would rather, however, that he had spoken with a little less severity of Hubbard and Mather. The public should be cautioned against

depending upon them in all cases; but, with a good deal of credulity and some incorrectness, they certainly collected many facts, and laboured for the public and posterity; and it seems to us, that they do not deserve indiscriminate censure.

In some of the opinions expressed by the learned editor upon the conduct of Winthrop and others, we do not entirely agree with him. The condition of our fathers was peculiar and critical. They were far removed from the civil power of the parent state; they were weak and unsettled; and many unprincipled adventurers forced themselves into their society, who could be governed only by strictness or severity. We will allow, that they were rigid, and sometimes intolerant. But they were sincere and pious; and what they did for the preservation of the peace and order of the churches, for the purity of faith, and for the suppression fanaticism and heresies, they believed absolutely necessary for the support of religious truth and of good government. Had they been as lax or liberal in that day as some contend, we fear their posterity would have been less moral and correct than they are.

We cannot close this hasty notice, without repeating our high estimation of this volume, and of the notes appended to it; rejoicing at the restoration of the true reading, which is one great benefit of this edition. We cannot now think of the work, without recollecting many of the prominent characters with interest and admiration. What if they did not figure in the politics and courts of Europe? Their memories are dearer and more valuable to us for their struggles and efforts in the cause of religion and freedom in this new world, where they laid deep and broad the foundations of a great, a prosperous, and a moral empire. We know not what characters it can be more important to us to see portrayed, than those of the wise and faithful Winthrop; of the polished and courteous Johnson; of the sincere, though sometimes too zealous Dudley and Endicott; of the apostolic and pious Higginson and Wilson; of the ardent and enthusiastic Cotton; of the laborious and evangelical Eliot; of the amiable and heroic lady Arbella. But it is impossible in a work of this kind to speak of all the virtuous, and resolute, and holy men among the early settlers in New England; and we conclude our remarks, by recommending to every one who loves to cherish the memory of the pilgrims, to place this Journal of Winthrop, as a precious document, in his library with Hutchinson's History and Mather's Magnalia; and, at some future day, with Judge Davis's Morton.

A Practical Treatise on Rail-Roads and Carriages, showing the Principles of Estimating their Strength, Proportions, Expense, and Annual Produce, and the Conditions which render them Effective, Economical, and Durable; with the Theory, Effect, and Expense of Steam Carriages, Stationary Engines, and Gas Machines. Illustrated by four Engravings and numerous useful Tables. By THOMAS TREDGOLD, Civil Engineer, Member of the Institution of Civil Engineers, &c. New York. 1825. 8vo. pp. 184.

THIS work has been some time before the American public, and, indeed, some time upon our own table; and we have been a little in doubt whether we had better add another to the number of writers upon the subject of canals and rail-roads, or let Mr Tredgold's book pass without comment. We have determined on the whole to allot to it a small space, though its merits would demand a large one, and this chiefly, that posterity may not be in doubt whether we belonged to this age. We do believe, however, notwithstanding all that has been written and said, that there are yet many things relating to canals and rail-roads not well understood here; and especially do we believe, that in regard to the expediency of adopting either the one or the other, or any very extensive plan in New England, there are many circumstances and facts to be considered, which have not received due attention in the public discussions of the subject. We shall not pretend, nor indeed would it come within the purposes of this Gazette, to go much at length into a subject involving so many particulars, and requiring so minute investigation in order to bring it distinctly before the public in its proper light, and in all its bearings upon private and public interest. But we have collected a few facts, and made some calculations upon them, which, we think, our readers may be pleased to see, though they will be far enough from encouraging the popular enthusiasm for canals and rail-roads, which seems so thoroughly to have imbued the public mind. For a more full investigation of the subject, we must refer our readers to the book whose title we have quoted above; as it contains probably a more satisfactory account of the different modes of inland transportation in Great Britain, than can be found elsewhere in the same space. Mr Tredgold is a philosophical as well as practical engineer, and has succeeded in uniting the qualities of both in this work in an eminent degree. All his estimates of the expenses of con-

structing canals and rail-roads, however, are founded on data that vary somewhat from those which must be assumed here; particularly in regard to the cost of materials and labour. But of these topics more by and by. We will now select a few passages from Mr Tredgold's book, which will enable our readers to understand the general advantages of the different modes of conveyance, and give them a distinct view of the different kinds of rail-roads.

When it is attempted to compare rail-ways with canals, or common roads, it must be obvious that each mode has its peculiarities; the same may be said of each line of traffic. Hence it is important that those peculiarities should be studied with care; and we shall endeavour to collect them in a concise form for the advantage of comparison.

It is necessary to premise, that in every species of communication, we should endeavour to combine economy, speed, certainty, convenience, and safety. It is also necessary to consider the peculiar requisites of each species of communication.

For a canal, a competent supply of water is wanted, the quantity and expense of which is to be considered. A canal is limited to comparatively small changes of level; otherwise the delay and expense of lockage becomes too great. Canals are liable to frequent stoppages from frosts, floods, repairs; and in all kinds of trade these stoppages create serious inconveniences, if not much disappointment and loss. Canals interfere much with the right of streams and drainage; and consequently injure the property through which they are made, very considerably more than would be done by taking the part occupied by the canal. Both the first cost and the annual repairs of a canal exceed those of a rail-way; the excess differing according to the nature of the country. But in a country suited for a canal, the difference of first expense is more than compensated, by a greater effect being produced by a given power on a canal than on a rail-way, provided the motion does not differ much from three miles per hour, and this renders a canal decidedly better for a level district. On account of the resistance increasing in the ratio of the squares of the velocities, when bodies move in fluids, and also on account of the injury the banks would suffer by too rapid a movement of the water, the velocity of canal boats must be considered as limited to a speed not far exceeding that which they obtain at present; but on a rail-way, a greater velocity may be obtained with less exertion, even where animal power is employed.

A rail-road has more affinity to a turnpike-road than to a canal, both in structure and application. It differs from a turnpike in requiring to be level or slightly inclined, the ascents and descents

being effected by inclined planes, instead of the irregular undulations of the turnpike. To obtain these levels renders a rail-road more costly than a turnpike; for as to the expense of the rail-road itself, it will sometimes be less than a good turnpike road in the same place; for the interest of the excess of capital expended on the road will be less than the excess of annual expense to keep the turnpike in repair. But a horse will draw eight times as much on a rail-road as on a turnpike-road, when travelling at the same rate; and it is not improbable, that the reduced price of conveyance will cause eight times the quantity of traffic.

In a rail-road for an unequal trade, a descending plane in the direction of the greater traffic is desirable; the proportion of descent most favourable we shall show in our third chapter, only noting here that it is frequently an important advantage in any place where there is much ascent to arrive at the matter to be conveyed; a canal can take no such advantage, it must be level. The ascents and descents by inclined planes are much more expeditiously effected than by locks, and are not so limited to change of level.

But the great advantage of a rail-way will consist in its affording the means of transporting heavy goods with speed and certainty; if it be only so far as to double the speed of the fly-boats, it must be a material benefit. And recollecting that rail-roads are yet in an imperfect state, while the united talents of our civil engineers have been chiefly devoted to canals for about a century, we may confidently hope that there is yet scope for improvement; and we may fairly infer, that for new works, rail-roads will, in nine cases out of ten, be better adapted for public benefit than canals. * *

There are but three distinct kinds of rail-ways. The oldest and most extensively adopted plan consists in laying rails of wood or iron for the use of carriages with guiding flanges on the wheels: these are now termed *edge rail-roads*, in consequence of the iron-rails being narrow and deep.

The next method differs from the first, in having the guiding flanges upon the rails instead of upon the wheels of the carriages; it gives the advantage of employing carriages that can be used where there are not rails laid down. Rail-ways of this kind are called *tram-roads*, from their being first used for running trams upon. The rails are also called flat or plate-rails.

The third kind was invented some years since by Colonel Sargeant of this city; but it is here attributed to Mr Palmer, who, we are bound in courtesy to believe, has made the same invention in England. The following is Mr Tredgold's description of it.

The carriage is drawn upon a single rail, the surface of which is raised about three feet above the level of the ground, and it is

supported by pillars placed at equal distances, the average distance apart being about nine feet. The carriage consists of two receptacles or boxes suspended one on each side of the rail by an iron frame, having two wheels of about thirty inches diameter. The rims of the wheels are concave, and fit to the convex surface of the rail; and the centre of gravity of the carriage, whether loaded or empty, is so far below the upper edge of the rail, that the receptacles hang in equilibrium; and will bear a considerable inequality of load without inconvenience, owing to the change of fulcrum from the breadth of the rail, which is about four inches. The rail is also made capable of adjustment, so that it may be kept straight and even.

The advantages of this arrangement consist in its being more free from lateral friction than even the edge rails; and, the rail being raised higher above the ground, it is much less liable to be covered with dust or any extraneous matters likely to affect the motion of the carriages. Also, where the surface of a country undulates considerably, a rail-way of this kind may be made without cutting to level the surface, except so far as is necessary to make a track that a horse can travel in. * *

We expect that this single rail-road will be found by far superior to any other for the conveyance of the mails and those light carriages of which speed is the principal object.

The carriages on rail-roads may be moved either by horse-power, by steam-engines, or by gas-engines. Mr Tredgold discusses at considerable length all these different modes, and endeavours as far as possible to institute a comparison between them. He concludes that the most advantageous mode of using a horse is to allow him to work six hours a day, at a velocity, when loaded, of three miles per hour. If the velocity is increased, the load must be diminished, and in this case the useful effect will not be quite so great. The mean force of a good horse, moving at the rate of three miles per hour, may be estimated at 125 pounds. This amounts to 2,250 pounds raised one mile a day, which is the average *maximum* effect of one horse. The usual measure of horse power, in estimating the effect of machinery, is 3000 pounds. But Mr Tredgold thinks this is too high.

There are two modes of employing steam to move carriages on a rail-way. The one is by a locomotive engine, or an engine moving upon a carriage and drawing a train of wagons. The other we will allow the author to describe for himself.

Conceive, that the whole line of road is divided into short stages, and that an engine is placed at each of these to work an endless chain, extending the whole length of one or more stages, and run-

ning upon pulleys or rollers; also, that by simply moving the handle of a lever, having a friction apparatus, a carriage can be connected to the chain, and in a few seconds acquire and proceed at the same velocity, or be disconnected in an instant, if necessary. The consequences of such an arrangement would be, that the carriages would all move at the same velocity, that were attached to the same chain; and would not be liable to strike against one another. Any quantity of carriages, not exceeding the power of the engine, might be in progress at once; for any variation of the number would be regulated by the governor of the engine so as to keep the velocity the same, or nearly so. The engines could be of a better kind, kept in better condition, and under the care of better attendants, than any species of loco-motive engines.

According to Mr Tredgold's estimates, the average cost of rail-roads in England is about £5000 per mile; and that of canals about twice as much, or £10,000, equal to $44,444.44. The tolls, he thinks, never ought to exceed 2*d.* a mile; and in order to make a rail-road a good speculation, or to pay a fair interest on the cost exclusive of repairs, the amount of transportation must be upwards of 200 tons per day. If 428 tons were required to be transported per day, the rate of toll might be reduced to 1*d.* a ton per mile. Whereas on a canal, to reduce the toll to the same rate the amount of transportation must be 856 tons a day.

When the amount of transportation does not exceed 100 tons per day, the expense, including every thing, is about the same on a turnpike as on a rail-road; with the advantage in the former case, that a load may be taken in at any place, and carried to any place where it may be wanted, without an additional expense for truckage at each end of the journey. On the whole, Mr Tredgold comes to the conclusion, that a rail-road ought not to be attempted unless there is a reasonable prospect of an amount of transportation at least equal to 200 tons per day; and as this mode of conveyance possesses some advantages of speed, it is preferable to a canal, unless the transportation is likely to be as much as 1500 or 1600 tons a day.

In New England, the balance in favour of rail-roads over canals is probably much greater than in England. The ratio of the first cost of canals to that of rail-roads will be greater, also, on account of inequalities in the surface of the land; it being much easier and cheaper to pass hills and valleys by inclined planes than it would be to make them level, as would frequently be necessary in the case of canals, where locks could not be constructed. Besides, a canal is impassable in our climate on

an average five months in the year, and precisely in that part of the year when the produce of the lands must be, or will most conveniently be transported. Whereas a rail-road may be used the whole year. These considerations seem to be sufficient to give the preference to rail-roads, except where there is a much larger amount of transportation than there probably will be at present any where in New England.

The cost of transportation on our common roads and turnpikes varies from twelve to twenty cents a ton per mile, the average being probably about sixteen cents. On the road from Boston to Providence, the charge is twenty-five cents, but the cost to the proprietors of the teams, if they have loads both ways, does not exceed ten cents a ton per mile. We need not, however, rest our conclusions upon these points on probabilities. We have facts. The toll on the Middlesex canal, allowed by law, is six and a quarter cents a ton per mile. Yet we see, that except a few very heavy articles, the bulk of the transportation in that direction is performed by horse teams upon the very banks of the canal, at a rate varying from sixteen to twenty cents a ton per mile. These facts prove two things; first, that the rate of toll is too high; and, secondly, that the expense of truckage at the two ends of the route, and the danger and expense of loading and unloading so many times, together with the extra trouble, is greater than the saving in the price of transportation.

The Middlesex canal cost about 22,000 dollars a mile. A speculation of this kind can hardly be called saving at less than ten per cent. income, paying the expense of repairs out of this income. To pay this income each mile of the canal must yield 2,200 dollars per annum. It is not passable more than two hundred days in a year on an average; consequently the tolls ought to be eleven dollars a day per mile. To pay this at six and a quarter cents per ton, would require the transportation of 176 tons a day the whole length of the canal. If the tolls were reduced to three cents, which must probably be done, in order to bring the canal into triumphant competition with the road upon its banks, it would require a transportation equal to 367 tons a day for the whole distance.

Now we would ask, where, in the neighbourhood of Boston, can a place be found over which one half of this quantity would be likely to be transported either on a canal or a rail-way. We forbear, at present, any remarks upon the late contemplated canal to the Connecticut, and thence to the Hudson, as we intend at some future time to make the report of the commissioners the

subject of a separate article. We cannot, however, but express the unwelcome doubt, which is always obtruding itself upon us, though we always repel it with a most patriotic zeal, whether the merchants of Boston would ever be able to do business upon such a fascinating plan as to induce the manufacturers and agriculturists beyond the Hudson, to clamber over or plough through the intervening mountains, with their merchandise and produce, when it is so easy to drop them upon the deck of a sloop or a boat, and let the current waft them to a much nearer and a much larger market. We believe that the sober people of Massachusetts will hesitate long before they offer violence to their purses in any such cause.

Roman Nights, or the Tomb of the Scipios. By ALESSANDRO VERRI. In 2 Vols. Translated from the Italian, by a Lady of New York. New York. 1825. 12mo. pp. 177 and 178.

THIS work is a translation from "Le Notti Romane" of Count Alessandro Verri. The original has high reputation among the author's countrymen. It is a series of fictitious dialogues between the spirits of the great men of ancient Rome. The author represents himself as having been in this city at the time of the discovery and opening of the tomb of the Scipios, in the year 1780. As he had long cherished an enthusiastic admiration for the master spirits of old Rome, and for all that reminded him of their fame, he hastened to visit the remains of this illustrious race. He lingered among the catacombs where they reposed, till late in the evening, when his lamp was extinguished by a sudden gust. In the darkness which ensued, the shades of the dead began to arise from their tombs, and assemble round a spirit of majestic mien, who immediately addressed them in an eloquent discourse. After he had concluded his discourse, they retired to their graves, but he remained. Our author accosted him, and found him to be no other than the spirit of Cicero. While they were communing together, the cavern was again filled with innumerable shades of old Romans, drawn thither, like the spirit of Cicero, by the opening of the tomb of the Scipios. Their meeting revived the feelings, which they had cherished while living; and a scene of mutual praise and recrimination immediately ensued, among the most illustrious characters of Roman history. During three successive nights, our author remains a patient listener. On the fourth night, he summons courage to address them, and is

questioned in return, respecting the present state of the eternal city. Wherupon he invites them to accompany him, and judge for themselves. Under his guidance, they contemplate the monuments of its present and former grandeur, and are filled in turn with grief, anger, and admiration, at the changes which time has made in its appearance, manners, and institutions. The book concludes with an address delivered by the author, containing an abstract of the history of modern Rome, and some remarks by Cicero on the unfading grandeur of the city.

The form of dialogue which our author has selected for conveying information and criticism, and portraying historical characters, is well adapted to blend instruction with amusement. And if we regard these dialogues simply as imaginary conversations between the great men of old Rome, they have considerable merit. Many important passages of Roman history are discussed with spirit, and the conflicting opinions of the disputants afford exercise to our judgments. Atticus gives a striking picture of the horrors attending the Roman conquests, of the cruelty of their triumphal spectacles, and also of their domestic manners and public amusements. The conversations are in general characteristic and well supported.

If, however, we consider the dialogues as taking place, according to our author's representation, between the spirits of the Roman dead in the eighteenth century, they are more open to criticism. In the first place, the mode of assembling the spirits seems exceptionable. They are described as having wandered separately and without the power of meeting, since their departure from life, till they are brought together at the tomb of the Scipios, by the violation of this sacred sepulchre. The solitary existence of disembodied spirits seems to us conformable neither to Pagan nor Christian ideas of futurity, and if such were their condition, the opening of the tomb of the Scipios is certainly too insignificant an event, to bring them together by myriads, when their solitude had been undisturbed by the important revolutions, which their city had experienced during the lapse of ages.

We object also to the picture of their condition and character, as inconsistent with itself. As to their condition, they appear in general to be experiencing no retribution. There is nothing to show, that Marius and Sylla are not as happy as Cicero and Brutus. And yet, in the instances of Nero and the Parricide, we are presented with spectacles of the most dreadful punishment. As to their character, Cicero represents them as enjoying a wide sphere of observation and lofty meditation, as filled with

ideas which it is impossible to convey to mortals; and yet to judge from their discussions, they seem to have remained precisely where death found them. Their conversations overflow with their old prejudices. This is essential indeed to the author's purpose, of affording a correct picture of the great men of old Rome; and for that reason we object to the plan of bringing their spirits forward personally, in the eighteenth century, when they must have been long exposed to the operation of causes, able to work an entire change in their character. The author also appears to us on too familiar a footing with the mighty dead. Cicero and he seem to be intimate friends, and with the other illustrious spirits, he converses and argues on perfectly equal terms. We object, moreover, to a dissertation on the state of modern Europe from Pompey, in which he displays much too intimate an acquaintance with the subject, considering that he was profoundly ignorant of it, till he had heard our author treat of it a few moments before.

Considered as a series of historical portraits, this work is respectable. The martial fierceness of Romulus, and the philosophic mildness of Numa, the stern independence of Brutus and Cato, the savage and haughty spirit of Marius and Sylla, are well displayed. The stories of the Vestal and the Parricide, though horrid, are interesting.

As descriptive of the feelings, with which the great men of antiquity would regard the altered condition of their city, the ruins of its ancient splendour, and the growth of new arts, manners, and institutions, this book has no small merit. The lamentation of the shades over the Comitium and the Forum, now turned into a pasture for cattle; over the ruins of ancient magnificence, stripped of their ornaments, to add to the beauty of modern edifices; the dissertation of Vitruvius upon modern architecture; the ideas of Cæsar, Pompey, and Brutus upon the changes in government and manners, in military and civil institutions, which have occurred since their decease; the angry disappearance of Romulus, when he finds the city which he had left proud of its military sway, now become the centre of a religious dominion; the apparition of Jugurtha reproaching the venality of Rome; the judgment of Atticus upon the conduct of Coriolanus,—are characteristic and striking. The religious elevation of Rome is well compared, in the author's concluding address, with it ancient military glory. The translation appears to us to be executed with spirit and fidelity, and to be on the whole a desirable accession to our literature.

MISCELLANY.

SNEEZING.

"Ovidius Naso was the man: and why indeed Naso;" because he could sneeze, sweet Shakspeare might have said, if he had known as well as I do, the pleasure arising from the sternutatory operations of the nasal membrane. What can be more delightful, than the sensation experienced in waiting with open mouth and eyes half shut, and every faculty of mind and body on the tiptoe of expectation, for one of those tremendous explosions, which an agreeable titillation of the nostrils has fairly warned us is about to take place. But what more vexatious disappointment than to be compelled to resume our usual attitude and occupation without arriving at the supreme felicity of a sneeze, after having paid the most respectful attention for some ten or fifteen minutes, to the intimations of that self-willed gentleman, *Le Nez*.

I was led into these reflections by two accidental, but propitious sneezes, which happened a few moments since; and truly, Mr Editor, I am persuaded that the result of a hasty inquiry into the origin and progress of these nasal explosions will afford thy readers much amusement and instruction; if not, it is certainly no fault of mine. The art of sneezing must have been a very early discovery. Indeed some authors have laboured to prove that Adam was first made sensible of his own existence by a violent fit of sternutation. Others have asserted, that men never sneezed till after the deluge. Unfortunately for the advancement of literature, we do not at the present day possess sufficient information to decide with regard to this important point. Certain it is, however, that when Prometheus had finished his noble statue, he gave it life and animation by means of a sneeze. Probably snuff was not then invented, or he would never have had recourse to the expedient of stealing a bottle of the sun's rays, which he uncorked immediately beneath the nose of his image, and was overjoyed at the loud reports which succeeded this lucky manœuvre. An ancient Chinese manuscript relates, that about twenty thousand years ago, Fong-hi, Emperor of China, suddenly awoke from one of his long periodical trances, and threw the whole empire into consternation, by a sneeze. In times somewhat more modern, the Prince of Monomotapa, whenever he sneezed at meal-times, was wont to set the table in a roar, not indeed of laughter, but of pious prayers and holy ejaculations, and loud supplications for health and long life to his most illustrious majesty. It would seem that this operation of the nasal faculties could not have been so common an occurrence among the ancient Greeks and Romans as it is with us, or they would not have regarded it

with so much awe and veneration. The practice of observing all sorts of sneezes, and drawing from them "conclusions most forbidden," was early cherished by these "patres venerandi" of all modern lore. Theocritus makes mention of a very happy sneeze which took place at the marriage of Menelaus with the lovely Helena;

> To bless her bed, from all the princely crowd
> Fair Helen chose you—Cupid sneezed aloud.

And Homer relates, that when Penelope, harassed by the importunities of her suitors, was pouring forth entreaties for the return of Ulysses, the fortunate sneeze of her son Telemachus was hailed with joy, as the most favourable answer to her pious supplications.

> ..... Telemachus then sneezed aloud;
> Constrained, his nostrils echoed through the crowd.
> The smiling queen the happy omen blessed. *Pope.*

In those polite ages it was customary whenever a man sneezed, to cry, Ζῆθι, "May you live;" or Ζεῦ σῶσον, "God bless us." The following epigram of the Greek poet Ammian, on a man who had a proboscis of extraordinary length, alludes to this custom.

> Οὐδὲ λέγει, Ζεῦ σῶσον, ὅταν πταρῇ, οὐ γὰρ ἀκούει
> Τῆς ῥινὸς, πολὺ γὰρ τῆς ἀκοῆς ἀπέχει.

> He never cries, God bless us, when he sneezes,
> For he can't hear his nose, say what it pleases;
> At such a distance from his ears it lies.

The same practice prevailed among the Romans, and Strada has written a very learned dissertation on the subject, intituled, *Cur sternutamentis salutentur.* Aristotle has many sage remarks, that are very much to the point, and observes that the Greeks worshipped Ὁ Πταρμὸς, or "The Sneeze," as one of their deities. Plutarch relates, that when three beautiful captives were brought to Themistocles, Euphrantides the Soothsayer, perceiving that a bright flame blazed out from the victims, while a sneezing was heard to the right, ordered that they should be sacrificed to Bacchus Omestes, telling him, that thus the Greeks might be assured of victory. These sternutatory eruptions were not always considered such fortunate omens, but were variously interpreted, according to innumerable circumstances of time and place. Once, while Xenophon was making a speech, a full, round sneeze from the nose of one of his soldiers was sufficient to make him a general; but again, when he was exhorting his troops to rush upon the enemy, a most unlucky sneeze had like to have put the whole army to flight; and nothing but public prayers and sacrifices could expiate this dangerous omen. Theocritus says, that the mischievous Cupids had almost broken the heart of a disconsolate lover, by sneezing on him while

he was paying his devoirs to his captivating mistress. With us moderns, even the art of sneezing has not escaped the lamentable decay, which, in our degenerate days, has fallen on every invention of ancient brains, and every production of classic climes. Yet it ought to be cherished and venerated, were it only for the beneficial influence it has hitherto exerted on human society. The Prince of Hungary was once saved from assassination by a violent fit of sneezing, which attacked one of his intended murderers, who were concealed within the arras of his bed-room. It has often been the means of extinguishing the animosities of kingdoms, and calming the most turbulent dissensions of domestic life. The demon of Socrates always informed him by a sly sneeze whenever a fit of scolding was about to come upon his wife Xantippe, so that he was frequently enabled to get out of the way before the tremendous storm which was brewing had fairly commenced.

In our day the disgusting practice of snuff-taking has in most nasal organs completely destroyed the power of sternutation, as well as that of sensation in the olfactory nerves. What benefit or pleasure there can be in having one's "fine pate full of fine dirt," I never could conceive. Now and then to take a moderate pinch, just often enough to provoke at each repetition a good, hearty sneeze, would be very well. But to make the nose, that sacred depository of superabundant good humour, that venerable deity of ancient mythology, that precious organ through which we catch the sweetness of the spicy groves, the fragrance of the flowers,—to convert the nose into a vile receptacle for pulverized tobacco! O! it is a practice "abominable,"—a violation of all classic authorities,—as great a profanation as it would be to turn the temple of Minerva into a sheepfold. Suppose a member of the court of Areopagus to drop down into the midst of one of our modern halls of justice, what would be his amazement to behold each member gravely tapping the lid of his anti-sternutation pouch, and shovelling into his nostrils with a "voracious, pig-like snort," such immense quantities of its black and dusty contents! In former times, on any occasion of emergency, a happy sneeze was sufficient to set all things right, and the most important state affairs were managed with all the despatch and harmony imaginable by means of a few decisive sneeze-votes. At the present day the wise men of the earth are ruled in their deliberations altogether by the tongue, a most unruly member, and our statesmen are *led* by the nose, full as often as it *guides* them. If they would only consult its oracular responses, what perplexities might they not escape! what a waste of eloquence would then be avoided,—how many cubic feet of patriotic breath might be saved! their nights of solitary study, and the fearful wear and tear of their lungs in the day-time would all be needless. Instead of being compelled to sit for a fortnight on the benches of

Panama, or to gaze a whole month at the sour aspect of the constitution, a few energetic, patriotic sneezes might relieve their anxieties, and forever prevent the recurrence of similar embarrassments. There would be but one difficulty in the way,—designing and intriguing men might possibly sneeze themselves into preferment, and our offices of trust and honour would sometimes be filled, with only an unwieldy snout, as they sometimes now are, by a pannel of uncommon protuberance and rotundity. I regret exceedingly that my limits will not permit me to pursue this interesting subject any farther. Some of my readers may be disposed to think rather lightly of these speculations; but I can tell them this paper is not to be sneezed at. And if you, Mr Editor, happen to be of the same opinion,—which, I declare to you, I can hardly doubt,—it will be but an act of kindness to the public, to print it for their perusal.

C.

PHILOSOPHY OF LANGUAGE.

Language is the expression, by visible, audible, or tangible signs, of the thoughts, feelings, or state of our mind, in order to excite the conception of them in another. It is either symbolical or arbitrary. In the first case it excites by the mere power of resemblance or analogy, the ideas which it is intended to communicate. Just as a portrait represents an absent friend; or, as stretching out the arms horizontally denotes extent; or, as imitating the action of eating expresses the real action itself. In the other case, language derives its significancy, either from a previous agreement between the parties, who use it, or from an actual explanation at the time. This agreement, and this explanation, can be made only by the presence of the object, which the sign is intended to denote, or by another symbolical sign, immediately expressive of the object, by its resemblance or analogy to it; thus the word *hat* must have originally derived its meaning from the actual sight of a hat, or from a picture of it, or from its appropriate delineation by certain motions of the hands, describing its shape and use, or by a definition, all the words of which must themselves have been explained by the presence of some objects or pictures, or by the exhibition of appropriate bodily signs and gestures. Precisely in the same manner when the word, power, or one of its synonyms, is first presented to the eye by visible marks, or to the ear by audible sounds, it would be unmeaning, unless there were a simultaneous exhibition to the mind of the person addressed, of an apparent exercise of power, or of a picture of it, or of a delineation of it by the countenance, position of the muscles, and motion of the limbs. This is also true of all the terms which denote any of the states, affections,

or operations of the soul. How can I convey to a person ignorant of the meaning of the term *to think*, unless at the same time I refer him to an actual exhibition of thought in some human agent; or to a picture faithfully delineating its effect upon the countenance; or by seizing the happy moment when he himself is immersed in thought. It will be said, perhaps, that I can give an appropriate definition of it, without resorting to any of these modes of explanation. But the definition itself consists of words, which must originally have derived their meaning from some one of the above mentioned sources. So that the elements of all language must be found either in the actual presence of objects, or in their expression by symbolical signs.

Watch the gradual progress of the infant mind in the acquisition of language, and the truths which have been stated will be abundantly manifest. The first simple words which the child learns, always derive their meaning from the presence of the objects, which they denote. It would never know how to call its mother by this endearing appellation, unless it saw before its eyes the being to whom this name is applied, and also witnessed the actual application of it to her, and not to any other person. And the little phrases, too, which it acquires, must be illustrated in the same manner. "Come here," says the fond parent. This expression is accompanied with a certain expression of the countenance, or beckoning of the hand, or presentation of some alluring plaything; which the child watches with a scrutinizing eye, and thus the phrase being accompanied with a visible set, of what I would call symbolical signs, its import is developed and understood. "You are a naughty child, I am displeased with you," says the dissatisfied mother to the froward daughter. It is the first time that the trembling offender has heard the unwelcome rebuke. She has acquired the meaning of the words "you are" and "child," by having often witnessed herself addressed by these epithets, and also that of the expression, "I am," by noticing that the speaker always applies it to himself. But what does "naughty" mean, and also "displeased;" she refers the first of these epithets to herself, and the last to her parent. She is conscious of her own wrong feelings and conduct; she observes that they produced an expression of displeasure, accompanying the utterance of the phrase, and explaining its import; without this it would be quite unintelligible. "You were a good boy yesterday, and I gave you that whistle;" "were," "yesterday," "gave," "whistle," all these are new words to the child. He begins to cast about for their meaning. He *sees* his whistle, he knows its name, because the parent points to it. Now the train of thought begins. He has learned what the word "good" means, by having heard himself often called so, when he was conscious of having conducted well. This leads him to re-

flect, that his good conduct and the whistle have some connexion with each other. When did this connexion take place? It was when the father smiled, and gave the toy to him; it was by yonder window, while the sun was sinking behind the great oak tree. This must all have happened at a time denoted by the word "yesterday;" and "you were" and "gave," must refer to the same time. Thus he has gained some notion, though as yet a very imperfect one, of a few terms which denote past time. But in vain would he have sought for the import of these terms, if the visible pointing of the finger to the whistle had not given him a clue to their meaning, and if a visible assemblage of various existing objects, and the consciousness of that worthy feeling and conduct which procured him the gift, had not been excited in his imagination by the recollection of the transaction of yesterday. Thus it is true, that the elements of language must be found either in the actual presence of objects, or in their expression by symbolical signs. When I speak of the actual presence of objects, I mean to include in this term, not only the various objects which the material world presents to our senses, but also all those states, affections, and operations of the soul, the existence of which we ascertain by our own consciousness, and which may be said to be truly present to the eye of the mind that notices them; and by symbolical signs, I mean, not only pictures or models of objects, or their delineation by appropriate motions of the hands and limbs, and attitudes of the body, but also that mysterious expression of the eye, that countless variation of all the lineaments and features of the human countenance, that palpable beaming forth of the soul through the thousand avenues which its clumsy mansion affords, which alone inform me, that a spirit like my own inhabits another body like my own. Let the truth of these remarks be tried by one of the most difficult instances of the communication to a child of the power and use of language. "God made you," says the pious grandmother to her little fondling. It is a Sabbath morning, and the venerable woman has her Bible before her; as she utters the name of the Holy One, her countenance assumes an air of calm and settled solemnity, and her voice a tone of deep and grave import. Her eye looks, and her finger points, to heaven. The time, the manner, the face, the glance, the motion, all dispose the youthful listener to seriousness, and convince him that whatever is meant by the word "God," a word which we will suppose he now hears for the first time, at least something very important and awe-inspiring must be intended. "Who is God?" he says, with a wistful look. "Why, God made the sun, moon, stars, earth, beasts, birds, fishes, trees, and every thing; he made you." What new knowledge has the child gained by this explanation? Only, that the word "God" denotes something, or somebody, that has

exercised great power. "But who is God, this powerful God?" "Why, he sees you, he feeds you, he protects you, he is above the blue sky, and he governs all things." Now the child is referred to certain actions of God, which are denoted by the very terms which have been before used to denote certain actions of its earthly parent, and the residence of this God is described, by pointing to the visible concave of the heavens. The eye of the child has just seen symbolical signs which accompanied the expression of the phrase, "God made you," and its imagination now fastens on the various objects which have been referred to in the explanation of the phrase, which objects have heretofore been actually presented to its observation. And what notion does it now, by these helps, begin to form of God? It probably conceives that God must be some mighty and good man, seated above the sky, who, with a skill vastly superior to what it has seen a mechanic employ, though by some similar process, made all things, and made itself, and, with a watchfulness like that of its father, takes care of all the people in the village. "Does God eat?" "No, my child, he has no body." "Then he has no eyes?" "God is a spirit." Amazement confounds the young disciple. "No body! A spirit! How is this? What is a spirit? Did I ever see a spirit?" The matron, too, is confounded. How is this little thing to be taught the nature of that something, which it has perplexed all the philosophers to describe, about whose essence a thousand disputes have arisen, and a thousand volumes been written. "My child, speak to that doll of your sister, does it answer you?" "No, grandmother, it has no tongue, it cannot talk." "Well, then, speak to the dog, he has a tongue." "Yes; but he does not understand me." "Why does he not understand you?" "He does not think what I say." "Can you think what I say to you?" "Oh, yes; only I cannot think what a spirit is; I am trying to think what it is, but I cannot; grandmother, do show me a spirit; where shall I go to see one?" "My child, look at me; see, I will tell my hand to go to my head; there, it moves; what makes it move?" "Why, you want to have it move." "Did you ever want to have your hand move?" "Oh, yes; a great many times." "Did your hand always move when you wanted to have it?" "Yes; only once I could not move it when my arm was in great pain, last winter." "Did you want to have it move then?" "I did; I thought it should move, but it would not." "You thought it should move; that thought is your spirit; God thought that the world should be made, and it was made. Where is your father?" "He has gone to see my little brother in the chamber, who is sick." "Is your father a tall man?" "No; he is very short." "Is his hair grey?" "No; it is quite black." "No; but I can think how he looks." "That thinking is your spirit, and God can think what you say, and what

you do." "Throw that picture into the fire." "Ah! no; it will be burnt up." "Why do you think it will be burnt up? That knowing is your spirit, and God knows all things." "Here is your little brother; do you love him?" "Yes; because he is a good boy." "That loving is your spirit; and God loves all good people."

Thus the child begins to have some notions of the meaning of the word "spirit;" but these notions are all derived from the consciousness, which it has of the operations and affections of its own spirit. So that it is a great mistake, to suppose, that language, in itself considered, ever conveys any new simple ideas to the mind. It may excite new combinations of thought, emotions, or purposes, but the elements, which compose these combinations, must be previously known, either by the actual observation of external objects, through the medium of the senses, or by the actual consciousness of the internal operations, emotions, and affections of the soul; and it matters not, whether this language consists of audible signs addressed to the ear, or of visible signs presented to the eye. Both are alike unmeaning, without the aid of observation, on the one hand, and of consciousness on the other.

We are apt to attribute a sort of magical power to speech, as if the articulate sounds of the human voice were in themselves sufficient to convey the import of the language which is uttered. This, no doubt, arises from the difficulty of recalling to our minds any recollection of the process, through which we had to pass in childhood, in order to acquire the meaning of the words and phrases which were at first addressed to us. A careful observer, however, may readily perceive this process in the gradual progress which a child makes in its acquaintance with language. The sounds addressed to its ear, excepting so far as the tones of the voice are naturally expressive of some emotion of pleasure or pain in the person who utters them, are quite unintelligible, unless accompanied with a simultaneous explanation, derived from the presence of some object pointed at, or some expression of the eye and countenance, or some motion of the limbs and body, or some movements in nature or art, or, in short, some assemblage of visible circumstances, which serve to illustrate the connexion which the language has with the occasion on which it is used.

(To be continued.)

ORIGINAL POETRY.

A FANCY-PIECE.

I FOUND thee, where the woods were wild,
And weeds and thorns had round thee grown;
No hunter's foot, no wandering child,
Had met thee, thou wert all so lone.

Above the cypress and the yew
Had wreathed around their funeral shade,
And the still wind, that faintly blew,
A sound, like that of sorrow, made.

And ever, as it o'er thee swept,
Low-breathing melodies were heard,
As if a mourner sobbed and wept,
Or nightly sang the widowed bird.

And now, as fitfully the blast
Shook the tossed branches overhead,
A voice like that of terror passed,
And like a midnight vision fled.

And then again a mingled tone
Of all sweet echoes met my ear,
Sweet as, when storms are overblown,
The warm South wind comes stealing near;

Sweet as the closing breath of Even,
When wet with dews her pinions fall,
And, like a messenger of heaven,
Night comes, and whispers peace to all.

I took thee from thy sylvan haunt,
And, brought thee to the cultured plain,
And saw thee flourish, like a plant
Nursed by the dews and kindly rain.

And there was music round thee still,
And it was sweet—O! sweeter far;
Like voices echoed from the hill,
When Love has lit his trembling star:

Or like the fluttering airs in May,
Stealing among the musky flowers,
And bearing mingled sweets away
From pansied beds and orange bowers:

A sound, that with the fretting stream,
And feeding flocks, and murmuring bees,
Blent, like the closing of a dream,
In undistinguished harmonies.

And ever, as the mounting sun
Shone broader in the summer heaven,
Voices and symphonies would run
In hurried chords around thee driven:

And then the melody was high,
Like organs pealing through a choir,
Or thunders mingling in the sky,
Or like the distant roar of fire:

A solemn, tempered tone, that gave
A shuddering, not unmixed with joy;
As when the proud, unshrinking boy
Fears, and yet breasts the bursting wave.

And ever, as the loftier swell
Sank from its airy throne, there came
Soft utterings of peace, that fell
Silently breathing one loved name.

Still loftier grew the master song,
And sweeter stole the under tone,
When suddenly there rolled along
Rude storms, and every breath had flown.

Silent and cold, I saw thee lay
Thy honours and thy hopes aside,
And slowly, faintly sink away,
Slow, as the long-retiring tide.

The breath of Spring to thee was balm,
And Summer gave thee light and love;
Thy leaves were green, when air was calm,
And Heaven dropped blessings from above:

But when the hills are bleak and bare,
Thou canst not stand the open plain;
But rather thou wouldst wither, where
I found thee, in thy woods, again.

P.

SONG.

Where, from the eye of day,
The dark and silent river
Pursues through tangled woods a way
O'er which the tall trees quiver;

The silver mist, that breaks
From out that woodland cover,
Betrays the hidden path it takes
And hangs the current over!

So oft the thoughts that burst
From hidden springs of feeling,
Like silent streams, unseen at first,
From our cold hearts are stealing:

But soon the clouds that veil
The eye of Love, when glowing,
Betray the long unwhispered tale
Of thoughts in darkness flowing!

H. W. L.

STANZAS.

And canst thou not accord that heart in unison with thine,
Whose language thou alone has heard—thou only canst divine;
And wilt thou not revoke thy cold and merciless decree,
Nor leave one solitary thought, to plead my wrongs to thee.

I found thee, yet a modest flower—an infant of the spring,
Unheeded, in the rosy crowd of Beauty blossoming,—
And little didst thou think, how dear thy spirit round me shone,
To light my heart with many a hope, my tongue could never own.

The smile which hung upon thy lips, in transport with their tone,—
The music of thy thoughts, which breathed a magic, theirs alone,—
The look, which spake a soul so pure, so innocent and gay,
Have passed, like other golden hopes of happiness, away!

My life has been a dream of light, of loveliness and love,
While serpents coiled beneath my couch, and roses bloomed above;
And yet a wicked whisper comes, like madness, to my brain,
And bids me dream, as I have dreamt—and never wake again!

R. D.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

Town Officer, or, Laws of Massachusetts relative to the duties of Municipal Officers; together with a Digest of the Judicial Decisions of the Supreme Judicial Court upon those subjects. By ISAAC GOODWIN, Counsellor at Law. Worcester. 1825. 12mo. pp. 336.

SOME months have elapsed since we first proposed to devote a place among our shorter criticisms to the volume whose title is transcribed above. We had loaned our copy to a friend in Court street, and at the late fire it shared the fate of many better books. We do not mean by this, that this book is bad; on the contrary, we think it comparatively good,—but not so good as it might be. "Freeman's Town Officer" has been in the hands of the public more than twenty, almost thirty years; and deficient as it is in its materials and its method, still it has been too long and too generally useful not to deserve an honourable mention from us in this place, or from any one who undertakes to speak of works of this kind, or of the very peculiar character of the corporations and municipal governments which they are primarily intended to serve.

In 1811, there appeared a new Town Officer, by Rodolphus Dickinson, Esq., compiler of "Beauties of the Bible," and of "Dickinson's Justice," both useful and respectable publications. In his Town Officer, Mr Dickinson improved upon Freeman, by adopting an alphabetical arrangement of titles, and by subdividing these more distinctly into chapters. If there were a new edition of this work, embracing the changes which have occurred in the laws and decisions relating to the government and affairs of towns, together with some further practical forms, it would still be a valuable book. During the last year two new "Town Officers" have been published; one by John Bacon, Esq., since deceased, and the one whose title stands at the head of this article. Mr Goodwin has adopted the plan of Mr Dickinson, or rather, we may say, the plan of every author of digests and abridgments, from Brooke to Bigelow; and he has done his work more thoroughly than any of his predecessors. We should like, however, to see this book somewhat reduced in size, not by leaving out any thing, for we would sooner add than omit; but by shortening many things. We do not see the necessity or propriety of preserving the precise phraseology of the statutes. It would be cheaper, plainer, and more convenient to set down only the legal effect, or settled meaning; and not the precise tenor of them. An example will best illustrate our meaning.

The following is the substance of section 9, chapter 50, of the act of 1785: "For the choice and appointment of assessors, and

for assigning their power and authority." Mr Goodwin, as usual, has printed it nearly verbatim from the statute book; we say nearly, because he does leave out about half a dozen words, just enough to admit in theory, the principle which he generally rejects in practice. We think that this portion of the law, in the form into which we have hastily thrown it, is clearer; and we know that it is much shorter, than in that given by Mr Goodwin.

Duty of Assessors before making an Assessment.

Assessors, before making an assessment, shall give seasonable warning to the inhabitants, either at their meetings, or by posting up notifications in public places, or in some other way, to bring in lists of their polls, and of their personal and real estates, (except such as are exempted by law from taxation) which they were possessed of, at such times as the general court shall direct.

Persons who shall fail to bring in such list, shall not be permitted to apply to the Court of Sessions for an abatement of their taxes, unless they show that it was not in their power to bring in said list.

If the assessors suspect falsehood in the list, they may require an oath that it is true.

The list thus sworn to, shall be a rule for the assessors, unless they discover errors in it, and then they shall assess the articles kept back.

We do not say that it is desirable to apply this process of compression to every law, and part of a law; for example, the laws against idleness, drunkenness, gaming, lasciviousness, and other immoralities; and those providing for the education of youth, and enjoining upon presidents, professors, and tutors of colleges, preceptors, and teachers of academies, and all other instructers, to inculcate upon children and youth "the principles of piety, justice, and a sacred regard to truth; love to their country, humanity, and universal benevolence; sobriety, industry, frugality, chastity, moderation, and temperance, and those other virtues which are the ornament of human society, and the basis upon which the republican constitution is structured [erected]." These and other statutes on similar subjects cannot be improved by any abridgment or change of phraseology. They speak with a simplicity and an energy in favour of virtue, and education, and order, which are to be found in the laws of no other nation of ancient or modern times. They are precious memorials of the wisdom, virtue, piety, and patriotism of our puritan ancestors, which it would be both unwise and ungrateful not to cherish. Such laws are very properly transferred entire into the work before us; but others, by far the greater number relating merely to times, forms, and other things, which

are in themselves indifferent, and have been declared to be right or wrong merely from a principle of public convenience,—these, we think, might be advantageously abridged; and we hope to see them so, when Mr Goodwin shall publish a second edition.

Notes on the Origin and Necessity of Slavery. Charleston, S. C. 1826. 8vo. pp. 48.

THE literary execution of this pamphlet is decent; but the occurrence of the phrase "data *is* correct," and the frequent repetition of the words *grade* and *locate*, do not allow us to suppose for a moment, that it is the production of a very classical pen. It shows research and reflection, however, which demand respectful attention. It contains very brief and rather unsatisfactory notices of slavery as it has existed in different periods, from the days of Abraham to the present time, and an attempt to demonstrate its necessity, *a priori*. We certainly could listen to an argument in favour of tolerating slavery, where it is already deeply rooted, without prejudice, and we believe that most of our readers would do so; but we live in too high a latitude to be quite prepared to hear it gravely argued, that slavery is necessary to a more perfect state of society. If the author means only to say, that in a civilized society, it is necessary that some should work while others think, or rather that some should perform manual labour, while others perform mental labour, he has without doubt the truth of the case. But the necessity of performing manual labour does not alone constitute an individual a slave, even though the wages of his labour be no more than sufficient to supply his daily bread. Who reclaimed the bleak hills of New England from a state of nature to a comparative state of fertility, and covered them with flocks and herds? Not slaves! but a hardy yeomanry, who laboured, indeed, but who felt as independent as the lord of a thousand slaves. Who are now sweeping the wilderness before them as they go westward through Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, and causing cities, and colleges, and temples to rise up as by enchantment? Not slaves; no, surely, not slaves; but the independent proprietors of the soil they redeem, whose noble spirits never knew to cower, and who feel as free as the air they breathe. If the author means, as we suppose he must mean, to assert and to prove that it is necessary to a civilized state of society, that it should be unalterably determined by extrinsic circumstances at a man's birth, whether he shall be forever a slave or a freeman, or even the less offensive question, whether he shall belong without hope or fear of change to the class of workers or the class of thinkers, we believe that it would not require the wisdom of a Socrates to refute him. He

is certainly mistaken, when he supposes that any feelings prevail among intelligent men in this part of the country upon the subject of slavery, but the sincerest desire to do what can be done to remove the evil as far as it may be removed, or to mitigate it to the utmost of their power. We shall be the last to encourage those jealousies which have existed, and which are prone to spring up between different sections of our country; for we believe that they may soon be forgotten. We must be permitted to express regret, therefore, that so sensible a man as this author must be, should have thought it worth while at this time to publish a formal vindication of slavery on such broad principles as are contained in this pamphlet. We have already extended our remarks upon this subject much farther than it was our intention to extend them at this time; but we will subjoin the following passage, that our readers may know the conclusions at which this vindicator of slavery has arrived.

Where the wages of labour are excessively high, compared with a labourer's necessary expenditure, it is evident, that the labouring class would acquire through their labour, not only a subsistence, but a competency which will enable them to raise themselves to the level of those who employ them; and that state of dependence which tended to keep them sober and honest, no longer existing, they will rush headlong to the gratification of their passions. As servants and labourers make up by far the greater part of every political society, it is clear that a state of general insubordination and immorality must ensue. Since the connexion between the labourer and his employer is a mutual dependence, it is also evident, that if the dependence of the labourer on those above him is diminished, and his means and power become greater, that the higher classes will gradually decline, and he will rise to the same station or grade into which the other must necessarily fall; and thus, those arts and sciences which adorn civilization, and confer upon it its chief advantages, and which, as we have already shown, can only exist in a refined and polished state of society, where alone they can attain their reward, must decline and perish. The only barrier to this disorganization of civilized society is slavery; which by forcibly bringing a quantity of labour into the market, tends to diminish the value of its wages from what they otherwise would be; and, at the same time, by depriving the slave of volition, and preventing him from rising to liberty and competency, prevents that perfect and universal equality, which is but another phrase for barbarism.

We have thus endeavoured to show the necessity of slavery in countries where the wages of labour are very high, on the principle, that exorbitant wages give the power to the labourer to gratify an inherent and leading principle of his mind,—the love of independence,—thus tending to produce perfect equality, which is destructive to subordination and morality; both of which are necessary to civilization.

The Contributions of Q. Q. to a Periodical Work, with some Pieces not before published. By the late JANE TAYLOR. New York. 1826. 2 Vols. 12mo.

THIS work, like the other productions of the same author, is distinguished for good sense and piety. The pieces, of which it is composed, are addressed more particularly to young persons, having been originally contributions to a periodical work intended for their instruction. They consist of moral essays and amusing tales and conversations. Though various in their character, they are uniform in their objects; which are the promotion of moral and religious principle, the correction of the faults and follies of youth, and the cultivation of habits of serious reflection and regular occupation. The author displays throughout, an earnest desire for the improvement of her readers, and a just conception of the mode of making instruction interesting to them. She enters into their wishes, pleasures, and employments, and exhibits on the one hand illustrations of the bad consequences which spring from faults of temper and irregular habits; and on the other the peace and happiness which attend a well disciplined mind, and a religious life. The work contains, moreover, many useful hints on the subject of education, and many instances of judicious domestic management, from which parents may derive benefit.

INTELLIGENCE.

Mr Webster's Oration. We take this opportunity to observe, that we sometime ago had the pleasure of seeing this performance in a Spanish translation, and can bear testimony to its dignified appearance in that form. There is a majesty and sonorousness in the Castilian language, that is peculiarly suited to the dignity of the sentiments, subject, and circumstances of this discourse. We rejoice to see such a specimen of North American eloquence, and of true republican feeling united with sober sense and practical views, go forth in a form in which it may attract and fix for a time the attention of our brethren spread over the cent ral and southern portions of the new world. This oration will make them know better, and respect more, the early founders and martyrs of American liberty. It will do honour to our country, and good to South America. It is thus that writings of this character fulfil a double purpose; while they praise the actions of the illustrious dead, they propagate most effectually their principles among the living; and by paying the honours due to a past generation, lay the foundation for new honours to be paid by the next. Senor Heredia, of New York, is the gentleman who has executed, in our opinion extremely well, the task of a translator. We recommend the work to those who are studying Spanish; and we recommend, also, that they use the original, to ascertain the doubtful meaning of a word in the translation, *just as freely as they would use a dictionary.*

Comets of 1825. We copy from Brewster's Journal, the following observations upon the different comets that appeared during the last year. The elements of the second one here described, it will be perceived, agree very nearly with those published in our number for the 15th of January, 1826.

"1. *First Comet of* 1825. The following elements of this comet have been calculated by M. Shumacher, from observations made by M. Gambard:

Passage of perihelion	1825, May, 31d. 473		
Long. of perihelion	273°	29′	30″
Long. of node	17	48	10
Inclination of orbit	57	26	40
Perihelion distance	0	89	96
Motion	Retrograde.		

M. Pons saw this comet so late as the 14th of July, 1825.

2. *Secomd Comet of* 1825. This comet was discovered by M. Pons, on the 15th of July, in Taurus, and has been observed by various astronomers. M. Capocci observed it about the 25th of August. He describes it as surrounded with a very extensive nebulosity, and as having a tail more than a degree in length. The following are its elements:

Passage of Perihelion at Naples,	1825, December 8d. 895 mean time.		
Perihelion distance	1.20808		
Log. of do.	0.08209		
Long. of perihelion	317°	24′	40″
Long. of descending node	35	19	50
Inclination of orbit	32	44	20
Motion.	Retrograde.		

This comet became distinctly visible to the naked eye in October last.

3. *Third Comet of* 1825. This comet was discovered by M. Pons, on the 9th of August, at 2, A. M., in the constellation of Auriga. The following are Inghirami's observations at Florence:

	Mean Time.			*App. R. Ascen.*			*North Decl.*		
August 20,	15h.	42′	25″	89°	25′	0″	22°	51′	32″
23,	15	9	21	91	36	39	16	29	45
24,	15	6	25	92	22	12	14	16	26
25,	15	34	58	93	0	13	12	5	57

4. *Fourth Comet of* 1825, *the periodical Comet of Encke.* This comet was discovered by M. Plana of Turin, on the 10th of August, and by M. Pons, on the 14th. M. Pons states, that it seemed to change its form, appearing sometimes elongated, and sometimes round. M. Valz seems to have observed this comet so early as the 13th of July.

M. Encke predicted the return of this comet; and the error of his calculations, when compared with the observations made in August, is not a minute of a degree.

5. *Fifth Comet of* 1825. [For an account of the observations made upon this comet, see United States Literary Gazette, vol. iii. p. 398.]

Athenæum in Boston. It is proposed to add to this establishment a building, which shall contain an apartment for the American Academy, another for exhibitions of specimens of the fine arts, and a third for popular lectures.

School Fund for the Several States. Mr Strong, from the Committee on the Public Lands, which had been instructed "to inquire into the expediency of appropriating a portion of the net annual proceeds of the sales and entries of the public lands, exclusively for the support of common schools, and of appropriating the same among the several states in proportion to the representation of each in the House of Representatives," has made a report to the House, accompanied by a bill, which has been twice read and committed, with the report, to a committee of the whole. The bill provides essentially that fifty *per centum* of the net proceeds of the money accruing from the sales and entries of the public lands shall be appropriated exclusively for the support of common schools in the several states; and that this part of the public money so accruing shall be vested annually in some productive fund, the interest or other proceeds of which shall be annually apportioned among the several states according to the ratio of representation of each state in the House of Representatives, to be applied to the use of the common schools, in such manner as the legislature of each state may direct. In the report, which precedes the bill, Mr Strong goes somewhat at length into an argument in favour of the principles of it. Among many excellent remarks upon the subjects contained in the report, we select the following, which are certainly very striking, and we believe very true: "It is a singular fact in the history of our species, that, nowhere has common education made any considerable progress among the people, without the efficient aid and protection of the government. There is, generally, a prevailing indifference among the illiterate to the cultivation of the mind; were it not so, the poor man, though learned, can rarely instruct his children, because his time is necessarily occupied in earning their bread; and the ignorant man, though rich, cannot do it, because he is himself untaught. In other countries, multitudes of the human race successively live and die as illiterate as they were born; and, in our own favoured land, with all the liberal patronage, private and public, which learning receives, we are not wholly exempt from these lamentable examples. Under a government like ours, there should nowhere be left masses of mind, illiterate and humbled, over which, in an evil hour, some master spirit may exercise a fatal control. Ignorance is the bane of liberty. Ordinarily, conspiracies and treasons are executed by the ignorant. These instruments of unholy ambition, however, are not selected from schools, where letters and morals are taught. Are not, then, the national and state legislatures under the strongest obligations to the people of this country, to provide and apply the means whereby every child may have the opportunity, in these nurseries of the mind, of acquiring some knowledge of letters, and of the various duties he owes to his country and his God?"

National Banner. Several numbers of a newspaper of this name have reached us from Nashville, Tennessee. The neatness of its typographical execution is highly creditable to the publishers, and its literary merits would give it a high rank among the papers and periodicals of any of the Atlantic cities. We wish, however, that it suited the convenience of the editor, when he takes poetry from our pages by the column, to indicate its source; as this is the only peculiar advantage we derive as an equivalent for opening to the newspapers, and through them to the public, a fountain of original American poetry.

Annual List of New Publications. There have issued from the different presses in the United States during the last year, eight hundred and forty-seven volumes; of which five hundred and ninety are original, and two hundred and fifty-seven have been reprinted from foreign editions of the same works. We presume that this estimate does not embrace the whole of the outpourings of the public presses in the country, but of this number we have collected and published the titles in the successive numbers of the United States Literary Gazette. We shall endeavour to make our list more perfect for the present year, and hope at the close of it, we may be able conscientiously to return our acknowledgments to "the trade," for the promptness with which they forward to us full and accurate lists of the works they from time to time publish.

Modern Practice of Physic. Dr Thacher, of Plymouth, is preparing for the press a new and improved edition of his American Modern Practice of Physic.

University at Leeds. The English papers state, that it is contemplated to establish an institution at Leeds, upon a plan, and for purposes similar to those of the London University, the prospectus of which may be found p. 468, vol. ii. of the United States Literary Gazette.

On the Construction of Chimneys. Mr Tredgold, in his work on warming and ventilating apartments, has given the following rule for proportioning the upper orifices of chimneys to their heights, and the magnitude of the fireplaces.

Multiply by 17 the length of the fireplace in inches. Divide the product by the square root of the height in feet, of the chimney above the fire. The quotient will be the area of the upper orifice in square inches.

Thus, if the fireplace be 15 inches wide, and the height of the chimney be 49 feet, we shall have $\frac{17 \times 15}{7} = 36\frac{1}{2}$ square inches, nearly, which is a rectangle of 6×6 inches, or a circle of nearly 7 inches in diameter. In chimneys already existing, the upper orifices may be contracted to their proper size, by Parker's (Roman) cement. The contraction of the lower end of the vent above the fire should be nearly the same as the upper orifice; and the throat, or lowest opening, should not exceed the length of the bars. The length of the front of the fire should be an inch for every foot of the room's length, and the depth one half the length. If the length of the chamber should be such as to require a grate more than 30 inches long, two fireplaces should be constructed.

Edin. Jour.

Legislature of Ohio. The Legislature of Ohio, which lately closed its session, was composed of 58 farmers, 26 lawyers, 7 mechanics, 7 merchants, 2 physicians, 2 printers, 1 miller, 1 surveyor, and 1 *gentleman*. Their place of *nativity* as follows, viz.: Pennsylvania, 32; Virginia, 21; Connecticut, 12; Massachusetts, 7; New York, 7; New Jersey, 6; Vermont, 4; New Hampshire, 3; Maryland, 3; Delaware, 1; Rhode Island, 1; South Carolina, 1; North Carolina, 1; Kentucky, 1; Ireland, 3; Ohio, 3. Last year, for the first time, there was one member a native of Ohio; now there are three. Only four persons, natives of that State, have ever been in their Legislature.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

Eaton's Chemical Instructer. A New Edition. With Additions and Improvements. Albany, N. Y. 12mo.

BIOGRAPHY.

The Life of Theobald Wolfe Tone, Founder of the United Irish Society, and Adjutant General and Chef de Brigade in the Service of the French and Batavian Republic. Written by Himself, and continued by his Son, William Theobald Wolfe Tone; with a brief Account of his own Education and Campaigns under the Emperor Napoleon. 2 Vols. Washington. P. Thompson. 8vo.

DRAMA.

The Acting American Theatre. No. I. Containing a Portrait of Mr Francis, as Sir George Thunder, in "Wild Oats." Price 37½ cents. Philadelphia. A. R. Poole.

HISTORY.

Sketches of Algiers, Political, Historical, and Civil, containing an Account of the Geography, Population, Government, Revenues, Commerce, Agriculture, Arts, Civil Institutions, Tribes, Manners, Languages, and Recent Political History of that Country. By William Shaler, American Consul General at Algiers. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co. 1826. 8vo. pp. 310.

LAW.

Reports of Cases Argued and Determined in the Supreme Court, and in the Court for the Trial of Impeachments and the Correction of Errors, of the State of New York. By E. Cohen, Counsellor at Law. Vol. IV. Albany, N. Y. 8vo.

MEDICINE.

Observations upon the Autumnal Fevers of Savannah. By W. C. Daniel, M. D. 8vo. Savannah.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Recollections of the Last Ten Years, passed in occasional Residences and Journeyings in the Valley of the Mississippi, from Pittsburg and the Missouri to the Gulf of Mexico, and from Florida to the Spanish Frontier; in a Series of Letters to the Rev. James Flint, of Salem, Massachusetts. By Timothy Flint, Principal of the Seminary of Rapide, Louisiana. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co. 1826. 8vo. pp. 395.

The ————. By Nonius Nondescript, Esq. Nos. I. and II. Price 12½. Washington, D. C. P. Thompson.

Remarks, Critical and Historical, on an Article in the Forty-seventh Number of the North American Review, relating to Count Pulaski. Addressed to the Readers of the North American Review. By the Author of "Sketches of the Life of Greene." Charleston, S. C. C. C. Sebring. 8vo. pp. 37.

Oration delivered before Captain J. H. Byrd's Company of Volunteers, on the Fourth of July, 1825, at Kingston, Lenoir County, N. C. By H. B. Croom, Esq. Newbern. 1826. 8vo. pp. 12.

This oration is not particularly distinguished in any way from the usual patriotic effusions on similar occasions. The following extract is, perhaps, as dignified and original as any part of it. "Soldiers! you have reason to be proud of the character in which you stand. You are not the Pretorians of an Emperor; the Janisaries of a Sultan; the mercenaries of any tyrant. You are the free citizens of a free state, voluntarily enrolled for the purpose of fitting yourselves to perform more effectually the duties enjoined by the Constitution; which are no less than 'to repress insurrection and repel invasion;' the most useful and important services, certainly, that any military has been called to perform. Persevere in these efforts, and you will deserve well of your country. It was, in part, by her brave *militia* that Greece freed her soil from the pollutions of the Persian host; and you should be fitted to assist in our country's defence, against those foreign foes, who may one day attempt her independence, for the destruction of those noble institutions by which she is distinguished, and which afford an example so dangerous to despots of the European continent."

POEMS.

Leisure Hours; a Series of Occasional Poems. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co. 12mo.

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Summary of the Practical Principles of Political Economy; with Observations on Smith's Wealth of Nations, and Say's Political Economy. By a Friend of Domestic Industry. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co. 8vo. pp. 88.

THEOLOGY.

Professor Stuart's Sermon, at the New Meeting-House in Hanover Street, Boston. Boston. 8vo.

Unitarianism, "Sound Doctrine;" a Sermon, preached in Waltham, at the Ordination of the Rev. Bernard Whitman, February 15, 1826. By Nathaniel Whitman, Minister of Billerica. Published by request. Cambridge. Hilliard & Metcalf. 8vo. pp. 36.

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

Christian Researches in Syria and the Holy Land, in 1823 and 1824, in Furtherance of the Objects of the Church Missionary Society. By W. Jowett, A. M. One of the Representatives of the Society, and late Fellow of St John's College, Cambridge. Boston. Crocker & Brewster, and Others. 8vo. pp. 364.

Interest made Equity; being a Republication of the Article on the Subject of Interest, contained in the Supplement to the Encyclopedia Britannica, from the pen of Mr Mac Culloch. Boston. 12mo.

The History of Christ as recorded in the Four Gospels, arranged by the Rev. Dr Doddridge, and divided into Sections and Verses. With Questions appended to every Section, and an Index at the Close, for the Use of Sabbath Schools, Bible Classes, and Families. Portland. William Hyde.

Johnson's Treatise on Derangements of the Liver, Internal Organs, and Nervous System; Pathological and Therapeutical. Philadelphia. 8vo.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the United States Literary Gazette, No. 74, Washington-Street, Boston, and CUMMINGS, HILLIARD, & Co., Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

THE UNITED STATES

LITERARY GAZETTE.

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REVIEWS.

The Constitution of 1776. By a Member of the Staunton Convention. Winchester, Va. 8vo.

WHEN we consider the circumstances under which the constitutions of the older members of our confederacy were formed; their insignificance in point of wealth and population, compared with their present condition; the jealousy of executive power, which oppression had generated in the minds of the people; together with their inexperience in the art of government; we are naturally led to inquire, whether they may not have erred in the establishment and distribution of the powers of government, and framed institutions fitted for petty districts, rather than powerful states. These circumstances undoubtedly had some effect, and their influence is particularly manifest, in the exorbitant power confided to the legislative branch of government. In some of the states, its ascendancy is so great as to reduce the executive almost to a cipher. In Virginia, for instance, the governor is chosen by the senate and house of delegates, and has no voice in the enactment of laws, nor in the appointment to the most important offices, these rights being vested in the legislature. This, indeed, is the extreme case, but in all the states its share of power is extravagant. The jealousy of power in the hands of individuals, has shown itself in several of the states, by limitations of the term of the judicial office. In New Jersey and Ohio, the judges of the highest courts are appointed for seven years; in Connecticut and Rhode Island, for one. And, in these instances, to aggravate the evil, they are chosen by the legislature. In some of the constitutions, the inexperience of

the framers has led to an injudicious mixture of the powers of different departments. In New Jersey, for instance, the governor is president of the upper branch of the legislature, with a casting vote in their proceedings, and this same branch, with the governor at their head, is a court of appeals, in the last resort, in all causes of law. From want of reflection on the rapid growth of our population, no limits have been assigned, in some of the states, to the increase of the house of representatives. Most of them, indeed, have made judicious regulations to prevent its number from becoming excessive. Of the consequences of omitting to confine it within reasonable limits, our own state is the most striking example. A similar want of foresight in regard to the changes which might take place in the relative character and importance of the different classes of citizens, has in one of the states, Virginia, confined the right of suffrage to freeholders, and the effects are such, that a reformation is loudly demanded. The apportionment of senators, one to each county, in the case of Georgia, and one to each senatorial district, made indivisible by the constitution, in the case of Louisiana, exposes the people to the chance of a very unequal division of political power, as the growth of the population may vary greatly in different parts of the state. In Virginia, the evil is increased by the extension of a similar mode of apportionment to the house of delegates.

While we look with regret on such defects in our political institutions, we rejoice in the reflection, that no violence, no outrage on established order is required to remedy them; that they provide the means of their own improvement, and of adaptation to existing circumstances, in the right of amendment secured to the people. There is nothing, in which we have more reason to exult, on a comparison of our condition with that of the states of Europe, than in the facility of redressing public grievances. As the consequences of a dangerous ambition, or a neglect of duty in our rulers, are prevented by the right of frequent election, so the growth of political abuses may be stopped, by plucking their root from the constitution. We need not bring our rulers to the block, nor drive them from our shores, in order to shake off the weight of tyranny, nor are we compelled to tear up the foundations of government, that we may correct the defects of our political edifices. Corruption is not allowed to intrench itself within established forms, and shelter abuses under the venerable shield of the constitution. Though warmly attached to our republican institutions, as the fruit of our fathers' toils, and the foundation of our own prosperity, we value them the more, that

they claim not to be immutable. It is no small part of their merit, that they are flexible to the wants and wishes of the people.

While, however, we rejoice that we have a legal means of remedying defects in our frames of government, and are thereby exempted from the dread of those political convulsions, which, in Europe, have made bloodshed and anarchy synonymous with reform, we should remember, that it is only a deliberate and cautious use of the privilege that can preserve its worth. We shall pollute the fountain, if we are always dabbling in its waters. The very facility with which our forms of government can be moulded to suit our pleasure, should make us careful, lest our rude handling destroy the beauty of the image. The tampering of quacks will be as fatal to our political as to our physical constitutions. Our governments will soon be beyond amendment, if the habit of frequent alteration is once established. Let us follow the example of our national legislature, and approach with reverence the ark of our political salvation. While the world is rife with projects of constitutional reform, the object of which is the attainment of the good that we have already grasped, let us guard against a fondness for political experiments, which may endanger the loss of our advantages and our reputation. Let us consider, that constitutions must be radically good, which have carried us through public poverty, party ferments, and an exhausting war, and are still carrying us on in a career of unexampled prosperity; that they were formed at a time, when oppression had kindled an ardent love of liberty, and a fixed determination to secure it on a solid basis; when toil and danger had awakened men's energies, and a long series of common sufferings had given birth to a remarkable unity of purpose, opinion, and feeling; when repeated aggressions had led men to reflect much on their natural and civil rights; when all the talent of the country had been called forth, to defend its liberties in the field, and keep alive the spirit of the people, and bring into action the resources of the nation;—that they were formed on a model, which, though not fitted for precise imitation, has, in its theory, much of a republican character, and of sterling excellence, the English constitution. With this our countrymen were well acquainted, from their long subjection to English dominion, and the attention which they had been compelled to bestow upon its principles, in their numerous contests with the mother country. By selecting from hence what was good in itself, and suited to their condition, and adding what their own experience and a wide observation of ancient and modern republics had taught them was advantageous,

they were enabled to form constitutions, whose excellence has been proved by the prosperity of the states and the love of the people.

Constitutions thus formed, and thus successful in their operation, are not to be altered without the most sober deliberation. But while we deprecate the idea of hasty changes, we have already said, that we consider the provision for necessary reforms one of the chief merits of our systems of goverment. In no instance, is its application more needed, than in that of Virginia, as exhibited in the pamphlet at present under consideration. Her constitution was formed in the year 1776, earlier than that of any other state in the Union, in the midst of the troubles and excitements of the revolutionary war, and at a time when the science of government was little understood in this country. "No wonder, then," to use the words of Mr Jefferson, "that time and trial have discovered very capital defects in it." These defects he has well exhibited in his Notes on Virginia. One of the most striking is the restriction of the right of suffrage to freeholders, which leaves a majority of the men, who support the burdens of the state, unrepresented. Another is the apportionment of the representatives, in equal numbers, among districts of very unequal size. The inequality of representation, arising from this source, is now enormous. As the increase of population has, of late years, been much more rapid in the western than in the eastern counties, some of the former now contain twenty times as many inhabitants as the smallest of the latter, and yet send only an equal number of delegates to the general assembly. The similarity in constitution between the senate and the house of delegates, Mr Jefferson considers also as an evil. "Being chosen by the same electors, at the same time, and out of the same subjects, the choice falls, of course, on men of the same description." So that the object of establishing two branches, namely, to make one a check on the other, is destroyed by identity of interest and principle. The concentration of all the powers of government, legislative, executive, and judiciary, in the hands of the legislative body, makes them, to use Mr Jefferson's expression, an elective despotism. "The judiciary and executive members are left dependant on the legislature for their subsistence in office, and some of them for their continuance in it. If, therefore, the legislature assumes executive and judiciary powers, no opposition is likely to be made; nor, if made, can it be effectual; because, in that case, they may put their proceedings into the form of an act of assembly, which will render them obligatory on the other branches. They have, accordingly, in

many instances, decided rights which should have been left to judiciary controversy, and the direction of the executive during the whole time of their session is becoming habitual and familiar." Their right to determine what shall be a quorum of their body for the transaction of legislative business, enables them, if they please, to fix upon so small a number that their fundamental character of a representative body will be lost. Mr Jefferson further considers that the constitution may be altered by the ordinary legislature. For it was formed by a convention of delegates substituted in the place of the colonial assembly, with no powers but those of ordinary legislation, and of course incapable of establishing a perpetual and unalterable frame of government.

These defects, particularly in the right of suffrage and of representation, had long been the subject of complaint, when, in the year 1816, a meeting was held at Winchester, to devise means for remedying them. The result of its deliberations was communicated to the people in an address, insisting chiefly on the gross inequality of representation, and "recommending a deputation to Staunton, in the month of August ensuing, of two of the friends of reform from each county, for the purpose of advising and adopting measures for effecting a convention of the people of this Commonwealth." Conformably to this advice, a deputation from nearly forty counties assembled there, and determined to ask the assistance of the legislature in effecting their object. Though their petition was rejected, something was gained by the enactment of a law, "for dividing the state into twenty-four senatorial districts, containing each, as well as could be effected without the division of counties, an equal number of free white inhabitants." This was all that was then accomplished, but, in the year 1824, "a vote was taken in a number of the eastern counties, and it was found that a majority of the freeholders were in favour of constitutional reform." This expression of the popular feeling roused the champions of the established system, and a defence of it soon appeared, which it is the object of the pamphlet before us to confute.

The principal arguments urged in this defence against a reform in the points of suffrage and representation, are, first, that an attempt to apportion representation in proportion to the number of free white inhabitants, will awaken bitter jealousy and opposition in those counties where the slave population is most numerous. For these counties contain, comparatively speaking, few whites not freeholders, and of course will be least benefited by the pro-

posed reform. In opposition to this argument, our author alleges the adoption of this principle by both branches of the legislature, in the new distribution of senatorial districts, and also the opinion of the house of delegates, expressed in an act for adjusting the constitution of their own body on the same basis, though the bill was finally abandoned on the ground of compromise. It is argued, in the second place, that no practical evil has resulted from the present system. To which it is replied, that the resources of the state have been paralyzed, because it was not the interest of the predominant party, under the existing order of things, to bring them into operation. The venerable names of the framers of the constitution are adduced in support of the freehold qualification and equal representation of counties. It is contended on the other side, that they were not the authors of these regulations, but found them established in the colonial system of government, which the circumstances of their situation compelled them to imitate. They framed the present constitution in the midst of political weakness and confusion, when exposed to the attacks of a powerful enemy from abroad, and to the dangers of domestic insurrection; when the state contained many friends of the old government, whom it was expedient to conciliate, "by showing as much respect as possible for old institutions;" when the haughty feelings of a landed aristocracy were to be consulted; and when they themselves were little experienced in the science of government. And whatever were the reasons of admitting these restrictions, the changes which have taken place in the relative importance of different parts of the state and classes of the citizens, require their abolition. It is also objected, that an extension of the right of suffrage would give an undue weight to the lower classes, fatal to the interest of men of property. This argument is refuted by the example of other parts of the Union, where the privilege has long been exercised, to the full extent contended for, without producing any such alarming consequences, and also by its inconsistency with another objection from the same quarter, namely, that an extension of the right would confer a dangerous influence on overgrown wealth, and lead to corruption in elections. These are the answers which our author gives to the principal arguments urged against reform. To us they appear convincing, and the general tenor of his essay spirited and able. Mr Jefferson's remarks have been confirmed by the experience of more than forty years, and the necessity of reformation must be apparent to every disinterested man. We heartily wish success to the efforts

which are making to effect it. Their object is the removal of restrictions which are a constant source of jealousy and heart-burning, which destroy all unity of purpose and feeling among the inhabitants of the state, and deprive the majority of that ascendancy which is essential to public spirit and public prosperity.

History of a Voyage to the China Sea. By JOHN WHITE, Lieutenant in the United States Navy. Second Edition. Boston. 8vo. pp. 372.

THE first edition of this work appeared some months before the commencement of our Gazette; we take the occasion afforded us by a second edition, of noticing it, as a part of the current literature of the day, and the rather, as some additional light has been thrown on the principal subject of it, by a later traveller, Mr Finlayson, whose work is noticed in the last number of the Quarterly Review.

The extensive peninsula, which has sometimes been designated by the vague appellation of "India beyond the Ganges," is occupied by several principalities. Of the extent and territorial limits of these, very little was known to geographers twenty years ago, and very much still remains to be discovered. Of the character, habits, degree of civilization, &c. of the inhabitants of these countries, in like manner, very little was, and perhaps we may say, still is, certainly known in this hemisphere. From some of the latest maps, it would appear, that a large part, or nearly half of this region, is the territory of the Birman empire. This principality occupies the western division of the peninsula, and appears from the events of the contest with the British East Indian government, to be deficient neither in the arts nor the resources of war.

The remaining part of the peninsula is divided between the kingdoms of Siam, Cochin China, or Cambodia, and Tonquin; the last being contiguous to China, and its monarch a dependant and tributary to the Celestial Empire.

The whole country of Cochin China, including the provinces of Onam and Cambodia, extends, according to Captain White, "from the latitude of 8° 40′ to 17° 0′ north; and from Cape Avarella, in longitude 109° 24′ east, it extends from the coast about one hundred and fifty miles westward. Its average breadth is, however, about one hundred miles from east to west."

It was visited by the French in the latter part of the last century. In the course of a revolution of the Onamese government, some individuals indeed of this nation acquired considerable influence with its monarchs, and, in 1787, the heir apparent to the Cochin-Chinese throne, was brought to Paris, and introduced to Louis XVI., from whom he received promises of assistance, which the revolution in his own country prevented that unfortunate prince from fulfilling. One or two Frenchmen. however, continued, till within a short period, to hold offices of trust and dignity in Cochin China.

The expedition of Captain White was an effect of the commercial activity and enterprise of some merchants in Salem; the object being to open a new field for the exercise of these qualities in a country hitherto so little known.

As our present concern is only with his adventures in Cochin China, we shall pass without notice the first three chapters of the work, which are occupied with the account of his outward voyage, observing only that he sailed from Salem, in the brig Franklin, on the 2d of January, 1819, and arrived at the entrance of the Don-nai river on the 7th of June following. Here he anchored, in "a small picturesque semilunar bay, situated at the foot of the mountain, at the bottom of which was a grove of cocoa-nut trees, where was situated the village of Vaung-tau, from which the bay takes its name."

A boat was despatched to the shore the following morning, for the purpose of obtaining a pilot to conduct them up the river to Saigon; the return of the boat was soon followed by a deputation from the shore, which approached in a large boat, with "its masts and yards decorated with pendants, and a formidable display of spears, ornamented with tufts of hair, dyed red, attached to the staves."

When scarcely within hail, they began to vociferate very loudly, repeating the word "Olan," and approaching with much caution; encouraged, however, by our amicable deportment and conciliating gestures, they ventured to come along side. The chiefs, of which there were three, at our solicitations, came on deck, and expressed by their actions not a little curiosity, though the sight of a large vessel did not seem to be a novelty to them, and our surprise was somewhat excited to observe, that one of them seemed to be "at home" on board. We afterwards learnt that this chief had been to Macao in a Portuguese brig some years before, and retained a few words of the language, but spoken with such an uncouth accent, that they were totally useless as a medium of oral communication; and,

their native language sounded so harsh and unintelligible to our unpractised ears, that we despaired of coming to an understanding by that means. We were consequently obliged to have recourse to our *Telegraphic dictionary* of signs, by means of which we learned, that the oldest chief was commander of a military district, which embraced all the country, including the several outlets of the Don-nai river; that he resided at Canjeo, a village about seven miles to the westward, and situated on the island of Dong-Thrang, which is the first land on the south side of the entrance, and that we must there wait for the permission of the viceroy, or governor, to approach the city; consequently, having ascertained that the subordinate chiefs were acquainted with the navigation of the river, we weighed anchor, and proceeded up to Canjeo, where we arrived and moored at 2 P. M. on the same day. * * *

The military chief was a withered, grey-headed old man, possessing, however, a great deal of vivacity, tinctured with a leaven of savage childishness, which, in spite of his affectation of great state and ceremony, would constantly break out, and afford us infinite amusement; he had several attendants, who were perfectly subservient and promptly obedient to all his orders, yet we observed that on all other occasions the greatest familiarity subsisted between them. One of the attendants carried a huge umbrella, with which he followed the old man to all parts of the ship, where his curiosity or caprice led him, and when invited into the cabin, he would not descend without the umbrella, so tenacious was he of every circumstance of state and appearance. Another attendant was a handsome boy of about fifteen years of age, who carried in two blue silk bags connected with a piece of cotton cloth, and thrown over his shoulder, the areka nut, betal leaf, chunam, and tobacco, of which they chew immense quantities; and so universal is this custom among them, that I never saw a man of any rank or respectability without one of these attendants. They also smoke cigars made of cut tobacco, rolled in paper wrappers, like the Portuguese, from whom probably they adopted this custom. Another servant carried his fan; and our risibility was not a little excited on seeing the old fellow strutting about the deck, peeping into the cook's coppers, embracing the sailors on the forecastle, dancing, grinning, and playing many other antic tricks, followed by the whole train of fanners, umbrella bearers, and chunam boys (for the attendants of the other chiefs had joined in the procession), with the most grave deportment and solemn visages, performing their several functions.

These *funny ways* were, however, of short duration; for, on the demur of Captain White to gratify a mandarin's reasonable

desire to appropriate sundry articles of apparel, arms, &c., they "found the aspect of affairs materially changed."

Old Heo (for that we discovered was his name) had fallen into very ill humour, and scarcely deigned to speak. We had discovered their insatiable love of spirits, and with a view to conciliate them, we ordered a large case bottle full to be brought, which was despatched with great avidity; still the lowering frown sat on their brows; and, finding us inflexible, the chief made signs that we could not proceed, and ordered his boat alongside for the purpose of leaving us, signifying, at the same time, that if we persisted in ascending the river, our heads would be the forfeit, and intimated that we must return to sea. Being now within two or three miles of the village of Canjeo, and fearing that our persisting in a refusal of their demands would induce them to put their threat of leaving us into execution, it was thought expedient to yield in some measure to their rapacity; a treaty was accordingly set on foot, and we were fain to purchase peace and good will, at the expense of a pair of pistols to the old chief, with twenty-five pistol cartridges, twelve flints, one six pound cartridge of powder, two pair of shoes, a shirt, six bottles of wine, three of rum, and three of French cordials, a cut-glass tumbler, two wine glasses, and a Dutch cheese. To the other chiefs, we gave each a shirt, a pair of shoes, a tumbler, and a wine glass, and a small quantity of powder. Nor were his attendants neglected in the general amnesty, and each of them received some trifling article of clothing, as a propitiatory offering.

Old Heo was now in high spirits again, and, in the *wantonness of his benevolence*, took off his old blue silk robe, with which he very graciously invested me; at the same time shrugging his shoulders, and intimating that he was cold. I took the hint, and sent for a white jacket, which I assisted him in putting on; at this attention he appeared highly gratified.

Their first visit to the shore is thus described:

On our approach to the shore, our olfactory nerves were saluted with "the rankest compound of villanous smells, that ever offended nostril;" and, the natives of the place, consisting principally of men, women, children, swine, and mangy dogs, equally filthy and miserable in appearance, lined the muddy banks of this Stygian stream to welcome our landing. With this escort, we proceeded immediately to the house of the chief, through several defiles, strewed with rotten fish, old bones, and various other nauseous objects, among the fortuitous assemblage of huts, fish-pots, old boats, pig-styes, &c. which surrounded us in every direc-

tion; and, in order that no circumstance of ceremony should be omitted, to honour their new guests, a most harmonious concert was immediately struck up, by the swarm of little filthy children, in a state of perfect nudity (which formed part of our procession), in which they were joined by their parents, and the swine and dogs before-mentioned.

The house of the chief stood at a little distance from the compact part of the village, and was somewhat larger, and in better style, than the huts we had passed in our approach to it. We were detained a few minutes on the outside of the paling, which enclosed the dwelling, to allow the chief, who had preceded us, time to prepare for our reception. In a few minutes it was intimated to us, that we might enter. Here I feel myself incompetent to do justice to the scene which ensued; my descriptive powers are totally inadequate to the task of portraying the ceremony of our reception; and nothing but the pencil of a Hogarth or a Teniers, could convey an adequate idea of the original. So irresistibly ludicrous was the scene, that it was with the utmost difficulty we could keep our risible muscles in subjection.

The apartment into which we were ushered, was about twenty-five feet square, and this, we found, was the usual hall of audience; the floor was composed of a mixture of sand and clay, which, by constant attrition, had become very compact and solid; the walls were decorated with rusty swords, shields, match-locks, gongs, and spears. On each side of the entrance was an enormous bass drum, called in the East, a *Tom-Tom*, mounted on a clumsy wooden frame, and struck with a bamboo, at stated periods, by a soldier on guard; but what method they had of measuring their time we could not ascertain.

On a raised platform, at the right hand, were seated two miserable looking objects, undergoing the punishment of the *caungue*, or yoke; this punishment is inflicted by placing over the culprit's neck, and resting on his shoulders, two pieces of large-sized bamboo, about ten feet long each, and secured parallel to each other, by two strong wooden bars, which pass on each side of the neck, embracing it very closely (not, however, so as to prevent its being turned round), and give the criminal the appearance of carrying a ladder on his shoulders.

Directly back of this platform, was an entrance into another apartment, devoted to domestic purposes, before which hung a coarse screen, or blind, of split bamboo, resembling those used in Bengal, not however so thick and closely woven, as to hide from our view the women, children, and pigs behind it, who were amicably partaking together of the contents of a huge wooden tray, which was placed in the middle of a floor, composed of small sticks, or wattles, laid transversely, over rough trunks of trees, and

secured by small cords, made of a kind of flax. At the back part of the hall, in a recess, was placed a large wainscot of heavy wood work, on which was carved, in high relief, a group of non-descript figures, which must have cost the wildest and most prolific imagination no small effort to invent. On each side of the recess, in gaudy water colours, were displayed several paintings, of prodigious monsters, "chimeras dire," and many other heterogeneous productions; and in the centre stood a table, on which was placed a censer of brass, a bason of the same metal, filled nearly to the top with ashes, in which were stuck a great number of matches (the ends of all which had been burnt), and a little bronze Jos, or god. And, in front of the posts, or pillars, on each side, were suspended, long, narrow scrolls or columns of coloured paper, with various characters of their language upon them, from top to bottom, painted in black.

I could not, on examining the whole assemblage of objects, in this part of the room, divest myself of the idea, that the most rigid devotee might worship the group, without fear of infringing the decalogue. The roof of the apartment, which was also that of the house, was decorated with "smoke-dried banners," in every stage of decay. But whether they were placed there merely as decorations, or were the *opima spolia* of their enemies, we could not determine.

Directly in front of the *altar*, as we afterwards found it to be, and contiguous to it, was raised a platform, about six feet square, and two feet from the floor, covered with coarse grass mats; on the platform were several square, leather cushions, painted red and stuffed with rice husks; and on these was seated, in all the dignity of good behaviour, his head erect, his chest inflated, his arms akimbo, and his legs crossed like a tailor's, a venerable looking object, with a thin grey beard, which he was stroking most complacently; on his head was mounted a large white European felt hat, exactly in the style of those worn among us, by the most broad-brimmed quakers; he wore a robe of black embossed silk, surmounted by a garment, which I immediately recognised as the jacket that I had presented to the old chief; on each side of him were ranged several military officers and soldiers, in party-coloured uniform, who were anxiously watching his countenance, and sedulously attentive to all his motions. We were led up directly in front of the *throne*, and received by this august personage, with great pomp, and a most gracious inclination of the head. He then waved his hand toward two clumsy, antiquated chairs, placed on his right hand, on which we seated ourselves. He then addressed us in their language, not a word of which could we understand; but the voice sounding familiar to us, on a nearer scrutiny, we recognised our recent merry guest, but now most dignified host, old Heo!

The dusky appearance of the room, into which the light had no access, but by the door where we entered, and there, in a great

measure, obstructed by the projecting roof of the house, which extended about six feet outside the walls, and descended so low, as to oblige us to stoop on passing under it; the sombre hue of the walls and decorations, caused by the smoke, with which we were much annoyed; the grave and solemn deportment of the mandarin; the grim and sable visages of the attendants; the grotesque assemblage of monsters in the recess, and the discordant noises of the human and brute concert, with which we were still regaled, transported us in idea to other regions. Such a scene must have been in the "mind's-eye" of Milton, when he wrote his animated and minute description of the court of Pandemonium.

Soon fatigued with this display of pomp and magnificence, the old man descended from his state, and giving way to his natural propensity for buffoonery, began strutting about the apartment, surveying with great complacency his motley habiliments, and calling on us by the most significant gestures, to observe and admire him; while his whole frame was agitated and dilated with importance; his chest rapidly rising and falling, as he exhibited himself before us. After having favoured us a few moments with this condescending exhibition, at which we were not backward in expressing our admiration and delight, he gave some orders to his attendants, and a rude table was set before us, on which were placed a coarse china tea equipage, a large dish of boiled rice, together with a piece of boiled fresh pork, very fat and oily, and another of boiled yams. The old chief then began tearing the food in piece-meal with his long claws, and thrusting it into our mouths, between every thrust holding a large bowl of tea, made very sweet, to our lips, with the most cruel perseverance, to the utter hazard of suffocating us; till finally losing all patience at his tormenting hospitality, and finding prayers and entreaties of no avail, I stepped back, and clapped my hand on my dirk, darting at him at the same time a frown of high displeasure; on which he assumed such a droll look of embarrassment, wonder, and fear, as instantly subdued my anger, and threw me into an ungovernable agony of laughter, in which the old fellow joined with great glee. He, however, desisted from any further importunity, and we were permitted to help ourselves, in our own way; and as we had been sufficiently gorged with fat pork and black rice, we tasted a few sweet meats, prepared in different ways, mostly fried in pork grease, all of which we found so filthy and unpalatable, that we could not swallow them.

After spending five days in delusive negotiation with Heo and his satellites, and vain attempts to obtain permission to go up the river to Saigon, Captain White proceeded to Turon, another port to the northward of the Don-nai river. Here he was equally

unsuccessful in his endeavours at negotiation. And, as the difference of language was a principal obstacle, he determined to proceed to Manilla, "with the hope that they might there find some person, who was acquainted with the Onam language, and would accompany them to Saigon." No such person, however, was to be found, and they were about to relinquish the enterprise in despair, when they were joined at Manilla by another American vessel, the Marmion. The commander of this vessel had, like Captain White, retired from an attempt upon Saigon. He had, however, met with better success, having actually gone up to the city in one of the small craft of the country. He had been prevented from trading by the ignorance of the Cochin-Chinese in regard to the value of doubloons, which he had brought instead of Spanish dollars. At Manilla it was easy to change the form of the specie. This was accordingly done, and the two Captains agreed to unite their forces for another attempt.

They arrived at Canjeo again without accident, and renewed the negotiation for permission to ascend the river, which they at length obtained. They were also able, on this occasion, to find persons, who were in some measure qualified to act as interpreters and pilots. The account of the passage to Saigon is interesting, but we are able to extract only the account of a singular concert, with which they were favoured in their passage through the lake or bay of the Seven Mouths.

From the contemplation of this fascinating scene, our attention was diverted to a new and curious phenomenon. Our ears were saluted by a variety of sounds, resembling the deep bass of an organ, accompanied by the hollow guttural chant of the bull-frog, the heavy chime of a bell, and the tones which imagination would give to an enormous jews-harp. This combination produced a thrilling sensation on the nerves, and, as we fancied, a tremulous motion in the vessel. The excitement of great curiosity was visible on every white face on board, and many were the sage speculations of the sailors on this occasion. Anxious to discover the cause of this gratuitous concert, I went into the cabin, where I found the noise, which I soon ascertained proceeded from the bottom of the vessel, increased to a full and uninterrupted chorus. The perceptions which occurred to me on this occasion, were similar to those produced by the torpedo, or electric eel, which I had before felt. But whether these feelings were caused by the concussion of sound, or actual vibrations in the body of the vessel, I could neither then, or since, determine. In a few moments, the sounds, which had commenced near the stern of the vessel, became general throughout the whole length of the bottom.

Our linguist informed us, that our admiration was caused by a shoal of fish, of a flat oval form, like a flounder, which, by a certain conformation of the mouth, possesses the power of adhesion to other objects in a wonderful degree, and that they were peculiar to the Seven Mouths. But whether the noises we heard were produced by any particular construction of the sonorific organs, or by spasmodic vibrations of the body, he was ignorant. Very shortly after leaving the basin, and entering upon the branch through which our course lay, a sensible diminution was perceived in the number of our musical fellow voyagers, and before we had proceeded a mile they were no more heard.

Soon after their arrival at Saigon, they proceeded to wait on the governor.

We landed at a great bazar or market place, well supplied with fruits and various other commodities, exposed for sale by women scattered about without order or regularity, each one the focus of her own little domain; some of these locations were covered with screens of matting, erected on bamboos, to protect the occupants and their wares from the rays of a burning sun. From thence, our route lay through a spacious and regular street, lined with houses of various descriptions, some of which were of wood, and covered with tiles, and were tolerably decent; others were of the most humble description, and none of them exceeded the height of one story. A few had enclosed courts in front, but they were generally placed close on the street.

Toiling under a scorching sun, through a street strewed with every species of filth; beset by thousands of yelping, mangy curs; stunned alike by them and the vociferations of an immense concourse of the wondering natives, whose rude curiosity in touching and handling every part of our dress, and feeling of our hands and faces, we were frequently obliged to chastise with our canes; the amusement of repelling a few of the dogs, with the swords in our canes (which, however, made no impression of fear on the survivors), and the various *undefinable* odours, which were in constant circulation, were among the amenities, which were presented us on this our first excursion into the city. At the end of the first street, however, the scene changed to one of a more pleasing nature. Our route lay through a serpentine covered way, walled with brick, and cut nearly a quarter of a mile, through a gentle acclivity, covered with verdure, on our arrival at which, the native *canaille*, biped and quadruped, left us, and we soon arrived, by a handsome bridge of stone and earth, thrown over a deep and broad moat, to the southeast gate of the citadel, or more properly, perhaps, the military city; for its walls, which are of brick and earth, about twenty feet high, and of immense thickness, enclose a level

quadrilateral area, of nearly three quarters of a mile in extent, on each side. Here the viceroy and all military officers reside, and there are spacious and commodious barracks, sufficient to quarter fifty thousand troops. The regal palace stands in the centre of the city, on a beautiful green, and is, with its grounds of about eight acres, enclosed by a high paling. It is an oblong building, of about one hundred by sixty feet square, constructed principally of brick, with verandas enclosed with screens of matting; it stands about six feet from the ground, on a foundation of brick, and is accessible by a flight of massy wooden steps.

At the governor's palace, they had an interview with that dignitary. It was, however, merely a meeting of ceremony, and tended little towards the advancement of the commercial part of the enterprise. On attempting a walk through the city, they were "constantly annoyed by hundreds of yelping curs, whose din was intolerable."

In the bazars we were beset with beggars; many of them the most miserable, disgusting objects, some of whom were disfigured with the leprosy, and others with their toes, feet, and even legs, eaten off by vermin or disease. Nor were these the only subjects of annoyance; for, notwithstanding the efforts and expostulations of the officers who accompanied us, and our frequently chastising them with our canes, the populace would crowd round us, almost suffocate us with the fetor of their bodies, and feel every article of our dress with their dirty paws, chattering like so many baboons. They even proceeded to take off our hats, and thrust their hands into our bosoms; so that we were glad to escape to our boats, and return on board, looking like chimney sweeps, in consequence of the rough handling we had received.

Their attempts to obtain a cargo at Saigon were met and obstructed by every species of chicanery on the part of the merchants, and extortion on that of the government; but we have room only for a single specimen.

On the following day, we waited on the governor, in order to make some arrangements for the payment of our measurement dues, as he had hinted at that subject on the preceding day. No representation we could make, or argument we could urge, would induce him to receive the Spanish dollars at *par*, he affirming that they were worth but eighteen mace in copper sepecks; we then offered to pay him in copper sepecks, which we knew we could purchase in the bazar, at the rate of nineteen mace to the dollar, to which, after some demur, he acceded.

On our return, we busied ourselves in the purchase and examination of copper sepecks, a harassing and perplexing employment;

and the united efforts of four of us, could enable us to count, assort, and new string, only the value of fifteen hundred quans, in more than a week; it must be confessed, however, that we were very inexpert in handling this money, so new to us, and that one Chinese or native would have completed the work in less time; but we were constrained to be very particular, and attend to it personally, to prevent its being again unstrung and recounted in the customhouse; a procedure that would, as Pasqual and Joachim affirmed, subject us to great loss, by reason of theft and destruction of the coin by careless handling.

A day being appointed for the payment of what we had collected, as we had no room for a larger sum, without causing great inconvenience, the Marmion's launch was freighted with it, and despatched for the customhouse; and it was, as may be supposed, a matter of curiosity, to see a stout long-boat of a ship of nearly four hundred tons, deeply laden with coin, amounting in value to only seven hundred and fifty Spanish dollars, and weighing nearly two and a half tons.

Although we had made every exertion to collect the various officers together at the customhouse, previous to the arrival of the boat, that no procrastination might take place in the delivery and receipt of the money, there was a great want of punctuality; and so great was the delay occasioned by waiting and sending for different individuals, that the sun had set before they were all assembled; for every officer we had before seen, and many whom we had never seen, were present; and when they had convened, there appeared no disposition to despatch the business before them; on the contrary, there was a manifest reluctance to proceed. There was much talking and mystery among them, and it was evident they were hatching some scheme to cajole us; we finally, after repeated applications, were permitted to land the money, and bring it to the customhouse, by which time it was nearly dark; we then urged them to take an account of it, and give us a receipt for the amount, at which they affected to laugh, and told us, that it was too late to do any business that night, but that in the morning, they would again assemble, and proceed to count and examine it.

We were thunderstruck at this declaration, for it had been expressly stipulated, that it should not be again separated, after we had delivered it; and an officer had attended on the part of the government, while we were selecting and arranging it at the house, to supersede the necessity of such a procedure. By this time, the tide in the creek on which the customhouse was situated, had ebbed so far, as to render it impossible to get out with the boat laden, otherwise we should have taken our freight on board again, and proceeded to the ships with it.

In this perplexity the wretches left us, evidently enjoying our embarrassment. We had now no alternative, but to let the money

remain in the customhouse, which was entirely open in front, and send on board for an armed guard from each ship; and when we had posted them, and given them proper directions, we left them.

They met with no disturbance during the night, but what proceeded from an enormous serpent, at least fifteen feet long, as they stated, which came out of the river, entered the court in front of the building, which it crossed, and came into the customhouse, and glided between the stacks of money, when they lost sight of it, nor could their strictest search, with the lamp which they had with them, again discover it. From the description of the sailors, I concluded it was a *boa constrictor*, and probably had its den in some part of the building, where it was retiring to rest, after its nocturnal excursion in search of food. This latter conjecture, however, was not at all satisfactory to the sailors, who insisted that it must be either the devil in his primitive disguise, or a real serpent, which had been trained by the natives, and sent in among them to frighten them from their posts, and compel them to leave the treasure unguarded; however, whether it were the arch-enemy himself, a *boa constrictor* returning to its den, or a serpent trained by the natives, the tars maintained their posts, with great intrepidity, and in the morning all was safe.

It was not till eleven o'clock, on the following day, that the officers were reassembled to count the money, nor did they commence till after 12 o'clock. After counting the first hundred quans, which consumed more than an hour, during which they practised every art to vex and annoy us, rejecting every sepeck which had the least flaw on it, or that was not of a standard size, to decide which they were furnished with *criteria* in coins recently from the mint; and when they had counted the one hundred quans, what was our astonishment, to find that there was an apparent loss of about ten *per cent!* As the rejected coin did not appear to amount to half that sum, which, on examination, we found was the case, our indignation was highly excited, and we insisted on searching the soldiers who were counting, and on them we found secreted the balance of the loss; they were not the least disconcerted at discovery, but laughed in our faces, in the most provoking manner. We immediately made a report of this roguery to the head mandarin or collector (whose conduct while measuring the vessels may be recollected); he observed, that if they were guilty, and we wished it, he would punish them; we insisted it should be done; they accordingly each received a few slight strokes with a rattan. It was evidently, however, all a farce, and they were laughing and chuckling during the infliction, if it deserves that name. Old Polonio and Joachim, who were present, now beckoned us aside, and told us that these vexations were contrived to force us to relinquish the plan of paying our measurement dues in

the coin of the country, and to oblige us to pay them in Spanish dollars, at eighteen mace each; and represented to us the great difficulties and loss we should experience in a perseverance in our intention. On hearing this, we determined to complain to the governor, a resolve which we put in immediate execution, and took Antonio, one of the government linguists, with us, and Joachim accompanied us. We entered our complaint against the officers, recapitulated our grievances, reminded him of his promises of assistance and protection, and demanded justice, promising oblivion of the past, provided our present and any future claims for justice were listened to and allowed. From his manner we fancied we perceived, that he was aware of the impositions that had been practised, and, no doubt, instigated by him; he, in short, declined interfering with the customhouse department, as out of his province; he, however, condescended to give us some wholesome advice upon the subject. He thought it would be best to allow the officers to count the money in their own way, or to make a compromise, by giving them a sum of money, on condition they would not count it; or to permit it to pass for so many Spanish dollars, at eighteen quans the dollar; and to prevent further trouble, to pay the residue of the government dues in Spanish dollars. We objected to part of this plan, but suggested, that we would withdraw all the money we had deposited in the customhouse, and apply it to other purposes, and pay the whole amount in Spanish dollars; to this he assented, provided we would pay a duty equivalent to the premium on the dollars, to satisfy the officers for the *trouble* they had already been, and might yet be at. In short, after several journeys backwards and forwards, between the governor's house and the customhouse, and night again approaching, we were under the necessity of succumbing to these harpies, and we delivered them the money, and took their receipts for seven hundred and fifty dollars, the amount of what we had paid for it.

This is but one out of the numerous vexations, which our unfortunate countrymen experienced, and which give occasion to frequent and solemn warnings on the part of Captain White, to merchants and commanders, to avoid these inhospitable shores. It appears, however, from the result, that he contrived to maintain the character of New England for shrewd dealing, and was not so thoroughly *come over* by the knowing ones of Saigon, as they perhaps imagined. The principal objection, after all, seems to be, that the quantity of products for exportation is really not sufficient to offer any considerable inducement to continue the traffic. The ships could not obtain, by all their efforts, full cargoes. Yet what they did obtain cost but seven dollars and twenty-two cents per picul, whereas what they embarked subse-

quently at Java, to complete the lading, cost eight dollars and a half. The picul contains one hundred and thirty-three and a third pounds English.

Notwithstanding the length of our extracts, we are aware that we have been able to afford but a meagre representation of a work, of which the whole is full of interest, and the greater part equally novel and amusing. This is a deficiency in some measure incident to the narrow limits, which are imposed upon us by the circumstances of our Gazette.

We shall conclude our remarks on this subject, with some notice of the singular discrepancy between the accounts of the same people by two different travellers. It is clear, that either the inhabitants of the country bordering on the Don-nai river are the filthiest, the most indecent, deceitful, and unmannerly race, who can have any claim to be reckoned among civilized people; or else Captain White's senses of sight, touch, and smell must be exceedingly imperfect and depraved; unless, indeed, we suppose him to have been guilty of wilful and gross falsehood. The conclusion of the Quarterly Reviewers, in their notice of his work, is, that "the Cambodians do not possess one redeeming virtue, one amiable quality, as an offset to their grovelling and disgusting vices." This opinion is materially altered by the work of Finlayson, who found "large and comfortable houses," where White saw only "filthy huts and pig-sties;" the "poorest among the people clothed from head to foot, and the populace making a more decent and respectable appearance than other Eastern nations;" "among the females many that were even handsome, as well as remarkably fair, and their manners engaging," without the least degree of "looseness of character," or "coarseness;" and in regard to the crowd, "that they conducted themselves with a degree of propriety, order, decency, and respect, that was alike pleasing as it was novel." The reviewers, in this instance, like many other very good people, seem to be most powerfully influenced by the opinion of the last speaker, and intimate, that Captain White must have looked upon the Cambodians with optics distorted by the results of his sugar speculation. This is not the first time, however, that travellers have disagreed in their representations of plain matters of fact; and, indeed, the frequency of this occurrence should induce all such persons seriously to consider, whether in the views which they are taking of objects before them, their eyes, ears, and noses are really worthy of any confidence.

MISCELLANY.

PHILOSOPHY OF LANGUAGE.

(*Continued from page 27.*)

THE presence of visible circumstances, serving to illustrate the connexion which language has with the occasion on which it is used, may seem to be necessary with regard to the whole class of words which denote sensible objects; but it may be doubted whether intellectual terms must also have a similar accompanying explanation. What necessary connexion is there between the word "forgot" and that state of the mind which it is intended to denote? Surely none. How does the child, who hears this word uttered, for the first time, acquire any conception of its meaning? It is done, partly by noticing the hesitation or peculiar expression of countenance of the person, who says, "I have forgotten;" and partly, by considering the various circumstances connected with the occasion on which the word is used; and, in addition to all this, by the consciousness, on the part of the child, of having itself been in the same state of forgetfulness. This consciousness is an essential part of the process by which the meaning of all intellectual terms is acquired; yet it is excited by some of the external and sensible assemblages of objects or circumstances, which accompany the utterance of the term. For instance; I wish to teach a child the meaning of the word "beautiful," and I may give him a laboured and logical definition of it to no purpose, unless I can direct his attention or imagination to some beautiful object, which he actually sees or has seen, and thus revive in his mind the consciousness of that emotion of beauty which he has actually felt. Were he so constituted as not to be susceptible of this emotion, or having formerly felt it, if I could not succeed by presenting to his view some object calculated to excite this emotion, to produce in him the consciousness of having felt it, all my efforts to teach him the import of the term, would be fruitless. "I am cold; bring that wood and put it on the fire." This phrase, we will suppose, is addressed to a child. In what way has he acquired the meaning of the word *cold?* Perhaps this epithet was first applied, in his hearing, to some person who was cold, the state of the air at the time and the apparent sensations of the person serving in part to render the meaning of the term intelligible. Yet it would not have been understood if the child himself had not felt either at that or some previous time the same sensation. When the word is again used, the child may not be cold, and he understands its import, as ap-

plied to another person, only by being conscious of his having formerly felt cold. Again, the child is told that a certain individual is proud. How did he at first acquire the meaning of this term? It was by noticing the effects which the feeling of pride has upon the appearance and conduct. But even this would give him a very imperfect conception of the meaning of the term, if he himself had never felt proud. The appearance of pride in another refers his mind to the previous existence of the same emotion in his own breast, and thus he acquires the accurate meaning of the word. When it is again used, it excites in his mind that consciousness, which he has of having himself once been in a state of mind which it intended to denote. That we do thus refer to ourselves when we hear such terms used, will, I think, be manifest to any one, who deliberately reads over a sentence involving them, and attentively examines at the time the operations of his own mind. "Ye who listen with credulity to the whispers of fancy, and pursue with eagerness the phantoms of hope," &c. What meaning could I attach to "credulity," if I never myself had been credulous; or to "fancy," if I had never exercised that faculty; or to "hope," if I had never indulged that emotion? These words, as I read them, excite in me the consciousness of having once been in the state of mind which they denote. This process of thought indeed is so rapid that it seldom attracts our notice, but it is not the less real.

Our own consciousness, then, of the operations, affections, and states of our own minds, and our own observation of what has been addressed to us from without, through the medium of the bodily senses, are the two sources from which language derives all its significancy. Spoken words, addressed to the ear, or written or printed words addressed to the eye, must have originally been accompanied by an explanation addressed to some one of the bodily senses, or else they would have had no meaning. This explanation, it is true, admits of great variety. It may be the actual presence of an object, or its picture, or its delineation by appropriate bodily motions and gestures; or it may be some change in the various processes of nature, or the actions of animals or of man; or it may be some of the movements and results of human skill; or it may be the effects which are produced upon the human countenance, body, gestures, deportment, actions, and conduct, by the operations, affections, and states of the mind; or it may be the excitement of our own consciousness with regard to the present or past state of our minds. But let it not be forgotten, that, in each of these cases, the original explanation of all words and terms, no matter how lofty or how humble their import, and whether denoting material or intellectual objects, must be addressed to some one of the bodily senses. The subject we are considering

is of so subtle and complicated a nature, and demands so much slow and patient analysis in order to arrive at correct conclusions, that our mode of treating it must be somewhat desultory. The chemist repeats his experiments in a variety of forms, many of which, for a time, hardly appear to have any bond of union, till at length the results are obtained, and the general principle established, which is equally applicable to them all. Just so in the laboratory of mind, the true intellectual philosopher, by a strictly inductive process, and by a careful and it may be, at first, an apparently heterogeneous examination of the diversified and endlessly varying processes of thought, determines by a comparison of them all, those laws of mental action, which, although they may be less palpable, are not less certain than those that material action.

(*To be continued.*)

ERRATA

In the portion of this essay published in the last number of the Gazette.

Page 23, line 18, for *our*, read *one*.
24, ... 2, after *meaning of*, insert *it*.
25, ... 28, for *clumsy*, read *clayey*.
26, ... 8, after *seen*, insert *the*.
—, ... 22, for *thing*, read *thinker*.
—, ... 45, after *black*, insert, "*You cannot see your father.*"
27, ... 2, after *burnt up?* insert, "*I know so, I have often seen the fire burn paper.*"

LETTER FROM AN AMERICAN IN EUROPE.

Düsseldorf, on the Rhine.

My Dear W.—What shall I tell you about, that you will care to hear? My fancy and my letters ought in duty to take a professional turn, and so I will discourse of churches and ceremonies and priests. Yet if I confine myself to what I have seen, I shall talk but little of religion, for I have hardly seen any of it in Europe. The manner of keeping the sabbath has interested me much. In England and Ireland it is much better kept than on the continent. Every body knows what is done in London. I will therefore speak only of Dublin. In that city, though the churches were full at twelve o'clock, the alehouses were full at two. On no day were the streets of that fine capital so crowded and so gay. A large portion of the shops, though not those of the Protestants, were open immediately after divine service. Perhaps you will be curious to know whether among a quarter of a million of people, in the metropolis of a populous kingdom, and the seat of a celebrated university, the style of preaching be not something far beyond what we of the West can have a notion of. It was far, very far below that to which we are accustomed in Boston. I wandered from high to low, from the venerable cathedral of St Patrick's to the Denmark-street

chapel of the miserable Catholics, and sought out those that were most commended; but I heard only two tolerable preachers. One was a clergyman of the establishment, simple, earnest, polished;—the other a Wesleyan Methodist, whose audience was principally composed of poor sailors; and he poured forth his piety in so warm and logical an appeal to their understandings and their consciences, and then setting the tune himself, he so led in their praises as well as their prayers, that he almost made me a Wesleyan Methodist too. But from the numerous other preachers whom I followed, I heard tame and vapid performances, words without thought, and form without religion.

At the ordinary, where I dined, was an archdeacon from the neighbourhood of Dublin. I felt much interested in one who bore the same title with Paley. But I had not conversed with him fifteen minutes before I found that he swore great oaths, and "had been to the play an hundred times, though he supposed it was not exactly right." So much for his morals; as for his intelligence, he related to me one Sunday, as one of the most marvellous events of his life, that he had that day heard two sermons from different clergymen, on the same text. Learning that I came from Boston, he wanted to know if I came by way of Cuba, with other questions that betrayed equal sagacity. This was the first European ecclesiastic with whom I became acquainted.

To return to the public service of religion. In the beggarly houses where the Catholics assemble, there was deplorable poverty, both of intellect and filthy lucre. This were worthy of all pity, if it were not accompanied by a ridiculous effort to retain the pomp and circumstance of ancient popery. The painted wooden altars and patched lawn were laughable enough, and yet I could not but grieve over this magnificence in rags. At the doors of some of these chapels were people selling strings of beads, pictures of the saints and apostles on glass, little tin boxes for consecrated salt, crucifixes, &c. One of them, a poor little Frenchman, was very urgent with me to buy a miserable daub in red, which he called "the real heart of our Lord Jesus Christ."*

A striking contrast to much of this I found in Nôtre Dame at Paris. Here was a most venerable and ancient cathedral; kings and queens had worshipped in it, and the chancel was rich in works of genius, bestowed by these great ones of the earth. There was no lack of gold and finely sculptured marble. The choir was filled with friars in appropriate garb, chanting the offices of the day, and the priests, splendidly arrayed, stood at the altar. But wherefore was all this? Some twenty or thirty of the laity were there to hear (yet this was Sunday morning); while the coarsely raftered chapel in Denmark-street was every sabbath

* Le véritable cœur de nôtre Seigneur Jesus Christ.

thronged by the poor devotees, kneeling on the cold stone, and cheerfully contributing a pittance, wrung from their necessities, for the repairs and tawdry ornaments of their place of worship.

I happened to be at Aix-la-Chapelle on a high festival of the holy church; and I went to hear mass in the cathedral, the central part of which was built a thousand years ago by the emperor Charlemagne. His ashes still rest below. They showed me the marble chair upon which the body was formerly seated, and in which, since it was taken from the tomb, thirty-six German emperors have been crowned. The service was chanted by a few monks in black cowl and hood, and the priests were assisted in the ceremonies by little boys dressed in scarlet. Every thing was there which could enhance the splendour of the ceremonial, one only excepted, and this was an audience. A few women and old men were kneeling in the shadow of the vast pillars, and crossing themselves, and counting their beads. From this church I went to another—St Catherine's, I believe. This was sprucely painted, and appeared to be in much more favour with the devout than that in which emperors have been crowned. There were a great many people in the church. The principal object of attention was an image of the Virgin, about as large as a girl of twelve or fifteen, dressed out completely in gown and hoop, as I have heard my mother say the ladies used to dress when she was young; only the head-dress was rather more modern. I suppose the doll was of wood, but could not get near enough to examine it. It was seated upon the top of the altar, and the prayers and kneebendings seemed all directed towards it. The Roman poet, dear W., tells us we must not wonder at any thing, else you and I, in the nineteenth century, might be inclined to wonder at this.

One Sabbath I have passed in the little city, from which this letter is dated, and thought I had now found a place where it was not a holiday, as at Paris and elsewhere. The wide and beautiful streets were still, and the only sound I heard in them during the day was the hymn for the soul of the dead, as a funeral procession passed along. But they were just as silent the following day, and I find that there is no business here which could occasion any bustle. The arrival of a solitary diligence is an important event.

Göttingen.

My Dear E.—I congratulate you on your choice of the profession of the law, as I believe it to be the most suitable to your character and talents. And, according to your request, I will give you such information as has fallen in my way respecting the law in Germany.

Perhaps it may be new to you, that the trial by jury does not exist in Germany. The processes in the courts are also conducted entirely in writing. These two circumstances throw a large share of power into the hands of the judges, and naturally give rise to the suspicion, that it would not be hard for the rich to obtain unjust decisions in their favour. Yet I have constantly been answered on this point, without hesitation, that, although the constitution of the courts offers a greater facility to bribery than that of the English courts, instances of corruption are as rare in Germany as in Great Britain; and from the general honesty of the Germans, I am disposed to believe the statement. But, though we acquit them of venality, their liability to influence from the great, must still be acknowledged. Certain tribunals, however, have maintained more than common celebrity for independence and impartiality. This remark applies particularly to a high court of appeals at Zell, in Hanover, of which George II. remarked, that it always decided against him. You will perhaps wonder, that in this age of revolutions, an attempt has not been made to introduce the trial by jury. Such an attempt was made in the ephemeral kingdom of Westphalia; but the new jurymen were wholly ignorant of the nature of their privilege, and unfit for its exercise. The theorists found, that, although a day could make a kingdom, it could not enlighten the subjects; and the plan was soon abandoned.

Montesquieu has justly remarked, that the principles of English law are to be sought in the depths of the German forests. But German law is at present in a state of such hopeless intricacy, as to promise little to an English or American lawyer, without the most painful and exclusive research. The foundation is indeed laid in the common law of the ancient German tribes. But upon this was placed the unwieldy structure of the Roman law. Both have been enlarged, and altered, and modified by the partial application of the canon law; by the usages of particular sections of the country; by ecclesiastical, and regal, and baronial usurpations; by charters granting immunities to certain territories; till the whole has become something with which the lawyers are exceedingly well satisfied, something —— for which a labyrinth is the only approved simile. This state of things furnishes food for many a hungry man, and the lawyers are accordingly very numerous. Of fifteen hundred students at this university, about half are of this profession. Yet, as with us, many of this number expect to fill civil offices. While at the universities, though the students profess perfect equality, the jurists are actually regarded as the first rank; but in the subsequent struggles of real life, they do not seem to retain this distinction. As a body, they have no influence in the community. The most sensible among them are not always the most eminent, since distinction depends almost exclusively on the place which family influence has obtained.

You will perceive, that eloquence is necessarily excluded from the profession. So far from having any opportunity to act upon the public, even the written statements, by which alone, as I mentioned before, the processes are carried on, are perfectly private. No persons are admitted into the court but the judges, advocates, and parties immediately concerned. It is probably just to charge these written processes with something more than the annihilation of eloquence; they have rendered the law still more of a mystery than it would otherwise be. Those who are not of the craft, do not, as in England and our country, know something of the law and the forms of court. They must blindly follow the advocate they have chosen.

What I have written is the result of much observation, and often repeated inquiries. But for the few circumstances which follow, I am indebted to a gentleman of the profession, a young German of character and veracity. Not only cases of no great intricacy are attended with a tediousness of delay, which nought but German phlegm could endure; but there are many, said my informant, in which any decision is hopeless. In the simplest cases, the matter proceeds thus;—the plaintiff's advocate produces an argument, the heads of which are communicated to the defendant's counsel. After a certain number of weeks, the latter produces a counter-argument. Both these papers are referred, by the president of the court (answering to our chief-justice), to one or more judges, as a sort of committee. The plaintiff is informed of what his adversary has urged, and is allowed a certain time (usually six weeks) to reply. After this reply has been made, the defendant must, of course, have the same privilege and the same time. With these four papers before them, the committee then examine the case, and make a report to the president; and they never hazard their dignity by too great speed. Now nothing is wanting but the sentence, and this comes after a decorous interval of time. Thus about four months is the shortest time in which a matter can be regularly settled by a legal tribunal. I confess I find it hard to believe, that the most common processes can be so tedious, but "I tell the tale as 't was told me."

MYTHOLOGY OF THE LITHUANIANS,

TRANSLATED FROM THE "BULLETIN DES SCIENCES HISTORIQUES."

Among the ancient Lithuanians, certain days were devoted to the honour of particular divinities. The traces of these festivals were to be found in Lithuania, even subsequent to the conversion of the people to Christianity.

They celebrated twice a year the festival of Pouchaïte, the chief of the devils, who, according to them, lived with his comrades under the lilac bushes. To regale these spirits, they spread tables, loaded with all sorts of viands, in the magazines of grain, the doors of which remained closed during the night. The following morning they entered, and examined the provisions, to see what kind was most nearly consumed; from which they judged of the kind with which the demons would repay the zeal of their worshippers. They believed that these demons were wont to take away the corn of those proprietors whom they disliked, in order to bestow it on those whom they favoured. In Prussia, it was long believed, that the lilac trees were inhabited by demons, whom they styled *red men;* that they were about an ell high, and appeared by moonlight to mortals, especially to the sick.

One of the principal festivals, was that of Dojinki. In the month of October, after the harvest, the peasants clubbed together to prepare a banquet. On the appointed day, they spread large tables, covered with hay and cloths. At each corner of the tables, they placed jars filled with beer. They then brought to the place of the banquet a pair of each species of domestic animal. When the priest had concluded a prayer, he struck the animals with a club, and commanded each of the company to follow his example. The animals thus knocked down were sacrificed to the god Ziémennik, to whom they addressed the following words: "We thank thee, Ziémennik, our god, that thou hast preserved us in health and prosperity." Finally, when all the flesh was roasted, it was cut in pieces, which were distributed to each corner of their houses, and on hanging them up, they recited this prayer, "Ziémennik, our god, we offer thee a morsel of flesh, which we pray thee to eat." The *fête* was terminated by dancing and playing on the flute.

In spring they celebrated the festival of the god Pergroubious. Before the peasants began to break up the earth, they brewed a quantity of beer, and all joined with the priest in repeating these words: "Lord, thou drivest away the winter, and coverest the earth with flowers and fruit. We implore thee to give this year an abundant harvest." Then the priest drank a pot of beer in honour of the divinity, and all the rest prostrated themselves. If the year was bad, they attributed the calamity to their sins, and addressed themselves in this case to the god Aouchchlaviss, that he might intercede with the other divinities in their behalf.

(*To be continued.*)

ORIGINAL POETRY.

A HUSBAND TO HIS WIFE,

ON THE FIRST ANNIVERSARY OF THEIR MARRIAGE.

Rise, Mary, from thy couch, and see
The bright sun beaming gloriously.
'T would seem as if his loveliest ray
He sheds upon our bridal day.
See, joy and gladness, love and mirth
Attend his journey o'er the earth;
No clouds are in the sky, but such
As slake the day-god's withering touch,
So thin, his beams may travel through
To warm the earth, and drink the dew.

Rise, love, it is a morn of bliss,
And thou the richest scenes may'st miss.
The spring-wind with a mellowing speed,
Goes dancing through the wavy mead;
Gay Ariels from the rosebuds talk
To fairies in the woodbine walk.
Up, Mary, love, the tuneful bird
Should never troll his glee unheard;
Nor thou upon this day of days,
E'er lose the thrush's lays of lays.

Has one year gone? yes, silently
As forms of night flit through the shade;
Passing unheard, unnoticed by,
Even as life's few summers fade,
Since on the altar gladly met
Hands to the seal of wedlock set,
And joined in clasp unbroken yet.
Yes, Mary, if thy bridal oath
To love me have retained its tone;
If yet thy heart believes my troth
An equal barter for thine own,
Then come, misfortune, sickness, want,
And wealth's reproach, and scorn's rude taunt;
For I can brave them, if a smile
Pass kindly o'er thy cheek the while.

Oh let another year but wind
Its course as tranquilly away;
Not they in Eastern seas, who find
One calm, perpetual summer day,

Shall live more blest than thou and I;
No frown, nor tears but such as spring
For others' woes, and not a sigh
That from a thought of self had wing.

J.

LINES

WRITTEN OFF POINT JUDITH LIGHT-HOUSE.

THE skies have rolled their clouds away.
  To drink the summer evening breeze;
Night hangs upon the eye of day,
Chiding the idling twilight ray,
  Among the leafy trees.
And look above! how clear and blue
  The *arch* of night,—with one lone cloud
Parting for stars to glimmer through!
  The waves are calm, the winds are still,
  While the full moon, in glory proud,
  Rides like Aurora o'er the hill.

Alas! that aught of grief should lower,
To cloud the bliss of such an hour.

Where yon pale spire is dimly seen
  Enveloped in the moon-beam's light,
Glancing its beacon torch between
  The blended hues of day and night,—
I marked a sea-bird, from her bed,
  Lighting her pathway through the skies;
Lured by its dazzling form, she fled,—
  And fluttering first in wild surprise,
Dashed madly at the vision fair,
Then shrieked, and poured her spirit there!

Oh! what a glowing image, this,
  Of man's inconstancy below;
He glides along, nor heeds the bliss
  He might, in calm contentment, know;
But, like the sea-bird, charmed away
By Hope's destructive meteor-ray,
  He soars above the halcyon wave
Of sweet content,—and hails afar,
  Some kindlier joy, his passions crave;
But finds, alas! the glittering star

That lured him to a brighter day,
The death-light of a fevered brain;
And feels too late that hope decay,
Which, blighted, never blooms again!

R. D.

SABBATH EVENING TWILIGHT.

Delightful hour of sweet repose,
Of hallowed thoughts, of love, of prayer!
I love thy deep and tranquil close,
For all the Sabbath day is there.
Each pure desire, each high request
That burned before the temple shrine,—
The hopes, the fears, that moved the breast,
All live again in light like thine.

I love thee for the fervid glow
Thou shed'st around the closing day,—
Those golden fires, those wreaths of snow
That light and pave his glorious way!
Through them, I 've sometimes thought, the eye
May pierce the unmeasured deeps of space,
And track the course where spirits fly,
On viewless wings, to realms of bliss.

I love thee for the unbroken calm,
That slumbers on this fading scene,
And throws its kind and soothing charm
O'er all "the little world within."
It trances every roving thought,
Yet sets the soaring fancy free,—
Shuts from the soul the present out,
That all is musing memory.

I love those joyous memories,
That rush, with thee, upon the soul,—
Those deep unuttered symphonies,
That o'er the spell-bound spirit roll.
All the bright scenes of love and youth
Revive, as if they had not fled,
And Fancy clothes with seeming truth
The forms she rescues from the dead.

Yet holier is thy peaceful close,
For vows love left recorded there!—
This is the noiseless hour we chose
To consecrate to mutual prayer!

'T was when misfortune's fearful cloud
Was gathering o'er the brow of heaven,
Ere yet despair's eternal shroud
Wrapt every vision hope had given.

When these deep purpling shades came down,
In softened tints, upon the hills,
We swore, that, whether fate should crown
Our future course with joys or ills,—
Whether safe moored in love's retreat,
Or severed wide by mount and sea,
This hour, in spirit, we would meet,
And urge to heaven our mutual plea.

* * * * * *

Oh! tell me if this hallowed hour
Still finds thee constant at our shrine,
Still witnesses thy fervent prayer
Ascending warm and true with mine!
Faithful through every change of wo,
My heart still flies to meet thee there,—
'T would sooth this weary heart to know
That thine responded every prayer.

WM. P——.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

The Biblical Reader; or Interesting Extracts from the Sacred Scriptures; with Practical Observations and Questions for the Examination of Scholars. For the Use of Schools generally, and Sunday Schools in particular; and is also well calculated for Individuals and Families. By Rev. J. L. BLAKE, A. M. Rector of St Matthew's Church, and Principal of a Literary Seminary, Boston, Mass. Ornamented with Cuts. Boston. 12mo. pp. 472.

THE manner in which the Bible is used in many of our schools seems to be one of those cases, in which we have retained the letter, while we have departed from the spirit of the maxims of our forefathers. Many of the first settlers of this country were deeply tinctured with the spirit so prevalent at that time in the mother country, which considered the Scriptures as the fountain of all knowledge, whether it regarded the concerns of this world or the next; which extracted codes of law from Leviticus, and applied to the affairs of common life in the seventeenth century of the Christian era, maxims which had their origin in the peculiar circumstances of the tribes of Israel in a remote age. The elo-

quence of the inspired writers mingled with their common conversation, and as it has been observed on another occasion, often "gave pathos to their grief and dignity to their resentment." It is to be regretted, that in too many instances, we have retained the use of the language without the reverence for it; that a familiar text stands us instead of a saw or proverb, and a quaint one serves to give point to a jest. It followed naturally from the habits and opinions of our puritan ancestors, that the study of the Bible entered largely into every system of education, and that the youth, whether in the school-room or at the domestic fireside, were often called to the diligent perusal of it. In these days, the rising generation are directed to other works for improvement in arts, sciences, and literature; the reading of the Bible has become rather a traditional form than an essential part of the business of education; and young persons, as it appears to us, are occasionally made to go through with this upon a principle, similar to that which enjoins upon the Mahometan his daily ablutions, or the Romanist, the repetition of his *decade* of aves and paternosters,—that is, the pronunciation of the words of a chapter is considered as an act meritorious in itself, without much regard to the degree of intelligence with which it is performed. Now we admit, that it is better that the Scriptures should be read in this way than not at all,—for there is a chance that something valuable may thus be acquired,—but we think it would be a great improvement upon the present system, if children were made to understand more, even though they read less of the Bible; and if this were studied, rather than merely perused. It has appeared to us, therefore, that a useful school-book might be composed of a selection from the Scriptures, accompanied with a copious commentary, explanatory of the manners and customs of the Hebrew nation; of the nature and geography of the country in which they resided; of the history and circumstances of the nations around them; the natural history of the plants and animals mentioned in Scripture; and many other points, which would render this an interesting study, and enable the young to form more definite notions on these subjects, than is usually the case. Such a Biblical Reader, we think, would be truly valuable. We have been led to these remarks by a cursory examination of the work, whose title stands at the head of this notice. It is formed upon a different plan, and one, which we do not think likely to be so useful. It is composed of selections of a moderate length; each being followed by a few questions on the text preceding, and a few practical observations. It seems to us, that these practical observations are not sufficiently simple for the purpose for which they are designed, having been selected from various commentators. This objection, indeed, the compiler anticipates, and excuses on the ground, that original comments

would have been monotonous. We do not see the necessity of this, and are of opinion, that it would have been an easy task to him to compose a series of simple and useful explanations and comments, and we cannot but believe, that it would have been an agreeable one. In the mean time, though the execution of this work is not exactly what we should have wished, we desire to give due credit to the good intention of the compiler, and to wish success to this and every attempt to make the study of the Bible a part of the regular education of youth, and to lead them to the habit of reflection on its contents, instead of a mere formal perusal of them.

The Edinburgh Review, or Critical Journal. (No. LXXXV.) November, 1825. Boston: Wells & Lilly. 1826. pp. 262.

This number contains but few articles likely to be very interesting to American readers in general. The most so perhaps are those on Fraser's Tour through Khorasan in Persia, and the Memoirs of Samuel Pepys Esq., secretary to the admiralty in the reigns of Charles II. and James II. This Mr Pepys would seem from several circumstances to be the original of Sir Walter Scott's Percie Shafton. Like him he was the descendant of a tailor, though a kinsman to a noble family. And he certainly equalled if he did not surpass Sir Percie in his regard for the *res vestiaria* and the unction, with which he dilates upon "welts, slashes, and hanging sleeves." For the rest, he gives such a view of the interior of the court of the profligate and contemptible monarchs, whom he served, as could not fail to please the whig palates of the Edinburgh reviewers. In the course of the article the reviewer takes occasion to relate several stories of the *second-sight*, which puzzle us a good deal; for it seems impossible that he can really believe that these stories afford any confirmation of this ridiculous pretension, and yet they are told in a manner, which leaves us to suppose that he thought it necessary to doubt them. It seems to us that a belief in the truth of all of them is perfectly compatible with a conviction of the absurdity of the notion of the second-sight.

Deutsches Lesebuck für Anfänger. Cambridge: Universitäts Druckerei—bei Hilliard und Metcalf, für Cummings, Hilliard, & Co. Boston. 1826. 12mo.

Only five sheets of this book are yet published, containing the preface, and extracts from Lessing, Schiller, Heeren, and Richter. It is the work of Dr Follen, late professor of the civil law in the University of Basle, in Switzerland, and now lecturer on the same science, and teacher of the German language, in the University at Cambridge. It will supply a deficiency that is just beginning to be felt in this country, that of a good introduction to the German language.

INTELLIGENCE.

English Periodicals. After an unusually long interval, we have recently received several London periodicals; from which we learn what are the new publications of pith and moment. Among these, is Butler's "Life of Erasmus." But it would seem, that it is rather an outline, than a full and perfect biography. Erasmus was certainly one of the most learned men of the 16th century; and did much by his writings to bring on the reformation, though he was not so decided as Luther in his opposition to the errors of papacy. It is said "to be a valuable work, although a brief and rapid sketch, and calculated to please the man of letters, as well as the general reader."—"My Thought Book," by Thomas, is said to be an interesting volume, containing much original matter, and written with great vigor and independence, yet with much liberality. It is singular, however, that he should intimate a belief, "that the diffusion of information among the lower classes of people will be productive of vicious conduct."—"Beauties of Modern Poetry," by Carey.—Vol. I. of the "Life of Napoleon," by Scott. This, we think, must be a great treat to the politician and the scholar. Sir T. Byerly is also preparing for the press the "Life and Times of Napoleon," which is to be an extensive work.—An abridged "History of Russian Literature" is also announced. It is mentioned as a profound and able work. The first part embraces the early period of the empire to the time of Peter the Great; the second, from that time to the present.

"Changes produced on the Physical condition of Countries by the Destruction of Forests." This volume is published in Holland. "To naturalists, this must be a curious and useful work."

Barclay on the present "State of Slavery in Jamaica" has excited more than common attention. It appears, that slavery in the British colonies has apologists, who contend, "that it is a mild and enviable state of servitude, and is not different from domestic bondage in patriarchal days." There is also an evident dislike, if not contempt for the poor Africans, who are "guilty of a skin not coloured like our own;" which is a plea for keeping them in a state of oppression and servitude, utterly inconsistent with the spirit of christianity. Mr Canning is for a gradual and eventual emancipation. This only is practicable, perhaps.

A "Sketch of the Life of the late Emperor Alexander" is also in the press in England; as also a volume, in which it is attempted to show that Burke was the author of Junius!—"Greece vindicated; or the Result of a Visit to the Morea in 1825."—"Theology of the Puritans."—"Causes of the slow Progress of religious Truth;" a Sermon by R. Aspland, a Unitarian minister.

"Hebrew Tales." The preface and notes contain much Jewish learning. The parables from the Talmudical books, are somewhat similar to those in the New Testament.—A Translation of Mignet's "History of the French Revolution."—Some of the reviews complain, that the science of Mathematics is less cultivated in Cambridge than formerly.—There have been considerable pecuniary embarrassments among booksellers, which have retarded several new works, prepared for the press and already announced.

A correspondent of the Monthly Magazine laughs at the criticisms in the New York papers, respecting the Italian Opera. The editor of that work is also very severe upon the article of the North American Review of last October, on Byron and his poems. He considers the remarks of the American reviewer unjust, and not in good taste. He is charged "with being fond of grandeur which borders on bombast; and not an admirer of nature and simplicity." The article is long and much in detail. The writer approves, in most cases, of what the American critic had condemned, and censures what he had commended. We enter not into the merits of the case; but simply state the fact. "Who shall decide when doctors disagree?" The quotations from Pinkney, an American poet, which had been praised by the North American, are also denounced as wholly destitute of the true spirit of inspiration. How much of these critical remarks are to be set down to national prejudice we will not undertake to say.

Among the patents lately granted, we notice one for improvements in the construction of watches.

Greek Tragedy. An Italian writer, Sig. Betti, has lately published a work, of which the principal object is to show that the ancient Greeks rarely made use of the passion of love in their tragedies, because the main design and tendency of their theatrical representations was to form good citizens. Qu. What is the tendency of these representations in our days?

Recovered Works. It is said, that considerable portions of the lost works of Polybius and Diodorus have lately been discovered, upon parchment, which had been written over by the ecclesiastical writers of later ages. This was not an uncommon practice with the writers of the earlier periods of the Christian era.

The Game of Chess. A French writer, M. Villot, supposes that the origin of this game was astronomical, and endeavours to prove it by painting out its coincidences with the ancient Egyptian calendar.

We intended to give a short abstract of M. Villot's explanation, but on the whole are inclined to doubt whether it would be perfectly intelligible to our readers, and the rather, as we were not sure that we always understood it perfectly ourselves. The king, according to him, represents the sun, and the queen the moon. The former is sometimes on a black square and sometimes on a white, and thus gives us alternately day and night. The queen is always placed in the first instance on her colour because the moon in opposition (the white queen) affects a bright colour, and in conjunction (the black queen) affects a black one, &c. &c.; from all which he concludes that the game is a monument of the astronomical researches of the Egyptians, and faithfully represents the division of time adopted by them.

Mummies of Animals. Professor Reinhard of Copenhagen has published an account of some mummies of cats lately examined by him. They have been so perfectly preserved that even the blood vessels of the intestines can be traced. The bones were evidently separated and afterwards reunited so nicely, that the separation can hardly be perceived. They resemble exactly the wild-cat of Europe. The Philosophical society of Newcastle, has lately examined the mummy of a ram, probably more than 2000 years old, in which the hair and bones were in a state of perfect preservation.

Unicorn. Evidence, more or less credible, continues from time to time to appear, of the existence of the Unicorn, an animal, which has usually been classed in modern times with the Sphinxes, Gryphons, Sirens, Hippogriffs, and other fabulous animals. This evidence has always been derived from Central Asia or Africa. The Bulletin of Sciences for the past year notices two instances of this kind. The first is contained in a letter from a German traveller to the Baron de Zach, dated May 3, 1824, and is as follows: "A slave in the neighbourhood of Koldagi told me of his own accord, that in his native country (Central Africa), there existed an animal of the size of a cow, which had the graceful form of the gazette; the skin furnished with hair, which was short and yellow, inclining to red; a white stripe along the forehead and nose, and upon the former a long and straight horn. The animal was called *Nilukma.* I have more than one reason to place confidence in this account of the slave, and the rather as I had never questioned him on the subject."

The other is from the Journal of the Asiatic Society at Calcutta. "Mr Hodgson," say they, "the resident at Katmandou, has sent to the museum of the Society, among other curious articles, a large *spiral horn*, which is said to have belonged to an Unicorn, together with a drawing of the animal, by a native of B'hote. We are assured, that this drawing is an exact representation of the living animal. The horn arises from the middle of the forehead. We are further informed, that this species of deer live in herds; that they feed upon herbs and grass, and that their flesh is agreeable food. The natives call it *Chiro;* its colour is a bright bay. This animal inhabits the woody country known, by the natives, under the name of *Changdung.* The testimony of the poor inhabitants of B'hote, who are brought annually by commerce or devotion to Nepaul, appears to be unanimous on the subject of the existence of this animal, but they are not willing to undertake to catch one. They declare, that the *Chiro* is too large and powerful to be taken alive, or to be killed by their feeble weapons; but they occasionally find a horn, which has been shed by a living *Chiro*, or which belonged to a dead one. The Hindoos dedicate these horns to their divinities. That which Mr Hodgson obtained, had been brought to Katmandou, for the purpose of being suspended in the temple of Sumb'-hou Nat'h."

Poetry. A Persian poet, at the age of eighty-four, wrote a poem on the adventures of Joseph and Potiphar's wife. It is said to indicate a lively imagination.

The poetical eulogy of the great prophet, by Ebou Abdallah Mohammed, is composed of one hundred and seventy-two distichs, each of which has, in the final rhyme, the letter M, the initial of the prophet's name. Both these works have been lately translated into German.

Gigantic Meteorological Eolian Harp. Captain Haas, of Basle, has designated by these names, an apparatus, which emits of itself a variety of sounds during a change of weather. Since the year 1787, he has had stretched above his garden 15 iron wires, of different sizes, 320 feet long, and at the distance of about two inches from one another. When the weather changes, these wires sound with such loudness, that it is impossible to go on with a concert in the house. The sounds sometimes resemble the hissing noise of water in rapid ebullition, sometimes that of a harmonicon, and sometimes that of a distant chime, or an organ.

Bulletin Univ.

Division of Labour. "There was originally," says the Edinburgh Review, "but one, or at most two, Professors of Medical Science in all our Universities—whose duty, and of course whose right it was, to accomplish students in every branch of that great mystery. With the progress of knowledge, however, the number of labourers was increased—and at Edinburgh, we have no fewer than nine Medical Professors. To finish a Doctor, in short, in our improved academical manufactory, he must pass through as many hands as a pin. He is first drawn out and cut over by the Professor of Anatomy—the head is then made by the Professor of the Theory of Medicine, and put on by the Professor of the Practice—he is next silvered over by the Professors of Botany and Chemistry—pointed by the Professors of Surgery—burnished up by the Professor of the Art Obstetrical—and finally papered and labelled by the Professor of Materia Medica. * * In very recent times, however, it may be observed, that the Professor of Law has had a rib taken out, and moulded into a separate Professor of Conveyancing—and the Professor of Surgery has suffered a similar operation in the creation of a kindred chair for Military Surgery—both these last being invasions of the original monopoly of the Professor of Anatomy. * * Our academical practice presents us with many examples of a teacher being charged at first with one very great and extensive department—and of business being afterwards carved out of it for several other teachers; but we are not aware that a single instance can be pointed out, in which one teacher has been tasked with two separate departments—so separate, that no one has ever proposed or attempted to combine them."

Comstock's Mineralogy. J. L. Comstock, M. D. of Hartford, Connecticut, has nearly ready for the press, "A Manual of Mineralogy." The work will consist of about 400 pages, octavo, illustrated with coloured engravings and wood cuts.

Popular Songs. The Bohemian government have lately collected the national songs and dances of the country. The collection contains 300 Bohemian and 500 German songs and a great number of the national dances. The first part has been published in Vienna.

Cambridge Graduates. It is mentioned, in an English magazine, as a remarkable fact, that, of the class which was graduated at Cambridge in 1760, sixty-five years ago, six are still living. In our Cambridge catalogue for the same year, there are four; which is a far greater proportion to the whole number in a class. Here the number was twenty-eight for that year. In the university in England, it was probably two hundred or two hundred and fifty. In our catalogue, there are two of the year 1756, and five of 1763, who survive.

Literature of the North. Specimens of the works of the ancient Runic bards and modern Finnish poetry have been lately published.

Speculations in Wine.—As an instance of the excessive importations into England during the late rage for speculation, it is mentioned, that the ordinary annual consumption of Sherry wine in England is from four thousand to five thousand hogsheads, but that in the past year, the imports had exceeded *twenty-six* thousand.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

EDUCATION.

The Art of Reading, or Rules for the Attainment of a just and correct Enunciation of written Language. Mostly selected from Walker's Elements of Elocution, and adapted to the Use of Schools. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co. Boston. 12mo.

Lessons in Simultaneous Reading, Spelling, and Defining. By a Teacher. Portsmouth. T. H. Miller. 18mo. pp. 144.

A Book for New Hampshire Children, in Familiar Letters, from a Father. Second Edition, revised and corrected; being a succinct history of the principal towns in the State, written in a very familiar style, that a child who can read cannot misunderstand; containing a small plain map of the State and Boundaries—a drawing of the State-House in Concord, and Phillips Exeter Academy. Exeter, N. H. F. Grant.

A Spelling Book, containing Exercises in Orthography, Pronunciation, and Reading. By William Bolles.

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REVIEWS.

Life in Paris. London. 1825.

It is somewhere said of Buffon, we believe, that he was so polished and beautiful a writer, that he charmed the celebrated Mademoiselle d'Espinasse into the circle of his acquaintance by the magic of his pen; but that the fair creature was absolutely shocked out of his neighbourhood on the first sally from his lips. This was in consequence of the disastrous contrast between Buffon in presence, and Buffon on paper; for the honest naturalist, instead of Lydian measure, introduced matters with an old saw, and a decayed proverb,—and, in short, swore emphatically before Mademoiselle in the same sentence. This was certainly unpromising. Yet it only exemplifies what we too often meet with now-a-days in the book-making and literary world. To be sure, there is some analogy to human nature in literature, in this respect; but human nature is the last thing an author has to do with in these factitious times; he must eschew it, as resolutely as our actors. It is delightful to go out in some sunny day, on some great occasion,—like a carnival, or a fourth of July,—and witness the pompous and busy things that are going forward, and imagine all that fancy will help you to, in addition to it; and it is something glorious to see the hero of the time carried along among trumpets and chivalry and all the uproar of the occasion;—but it naturally strikes us as distressing, to meet that hero in the evening, corkscrewing his legs in company, and reminding us of any thing but the splendour and thrilling confusion of which he occasioned an important portion

in the day time. So it is with the orator, who has constituted half the dazzle and fascination of the day,—it is torture to see him working his passage through a dance, in his boots; or with the tragedian, who has done capitally while he could draw on his author for language, or his costume for applause,—it is next to martyrdom to see him with an *air gauche*, assuming *politesse* and endeavouring at refinement, where the drama of real life is going on all about him. There are some things better seen at a distance,—and there are some persons who are better made to act than to write. This is no scandal, and no reproach; for, in the first place, the Spectator has said as much before us, and Addison himself is only the converse of the latter part of our proposition. The wit was no wonder at conversation, or *talk* (for we believe Dr Johnson distinguishes the two); but who could tell better, in type, what he and Will Honeycomb said and did at the coffee-houses, and in their chairs?

The great capital of the gay empire is certainly a worthy subject for any octavo. We believe London furnished one before this, and gave birth to a deal of amusement, and such entertainment as is cheap in the market. This, no doubt, is a work of emulation, and the second of its species. We shall waste no time to analyze it; but merely remark, that it is a strong instance exemplifying the doctrine with which we set out, that however imperial Dick Wildfire may be in the Boulevards and the Palais Royal, he comes as a lack-wit, a second-rate beau, to the shrine of Minerva. There are certain books,—and this is one of them,—which impress you with the serious value of a *good taste;* much as you become impressed, in that way, of the value of good company, at a race-course or a gaming-table. You think of elegant literature, and elegant people, and feel the "hiatus valde deflendus" conspicuously, and to the quick. These are, however, but some of the miseries of sensibility and good education, which, Heaven knows, are the worthiest subjects of all charitable and compassionate societies in this or any other country. This "Life in Paris," then, however charming in reality, is a miserable matter in the hands of a narrator, who, at best, was but a slang-whanger of the Tuilleries, and an adept in all the arts and frolics, from Very's and the *Rouge et Noir* adytum down to the smallest of the little *hells*,* which meet you at every turn in the metropolis. These things, after all, must be worked up with a polished adroitness as well as ability, and for the elegant

* A very pungent definition of gaming-houses in the French capital.

philosopher and wit, we know of few things more suited to his taste and powers, than the infinite and oriental variety of this glittering Babel. But for common men and common pens, for your literary Corinthians, your Neros in dissipation, and your Esterhazys in costume! *Procul este profani!* there is no approach for such to the mysteries of the press. For our own part, we were long ago satisfied with poor Yorick's stories about Paris, and all France that he went through; it thoroughly convinced us, that for the man of true sentiment and dignified notions, you could find no better historian of these things than your inoffensive genius, with a shrewd look about him, and "two black pair of silk breeches." He will give you nothing but France the intellectual, and France the beautiful, though he go to their very dancing (for the French *are* intellectual even in their quadrilles); and you know nothing from him about the *cafés* or champagne,—only so far as it serves to give grace to his pen,—so different is he from Lady Morgan and Peter Morris.

Great cities always furnish great stories,—and better than that, they always have great mysteries attached to them,—and for them, in short, we have great reverence. London has always troubled us from the time we were ten years old. We remember to have read then, as we do now, about the cloud of smoke which veils it from the sun, and points it out to all who are flying to it for shelter. Then, too, we read of, and dreamt about it, as the grand nucleus of romantic adventure,—the dark, portentous, busy place, where love felt safe, and intrigue went forward with its still and treacherous purposes; but we never thanked the man, whether traveller or tale-teller, who told us the miserable facts, that this cloud,—whilome to us more magical than that which veiled Jove in Homer, and Venus in Virgil,—that this veritable cloud was only the consequence of burning some villanous charcoal or seacoal underneath it; and that the city itself was altogether under the "beck and bidding" of the Rothschilds and Barings; and now-a-days busy, heart and soul, with the grand romance of forcing a tunnel under the bed of the Thames. This has effectually cured us of all vaults and trap-doors. But Paris is another matter. There is much there, that is still dear to our recollections and our feelings. The old times of the Troubadours come back, to think of Paris. The fantastic ages of the drama; Louis XIV., his court and his *coteries;* the poets playing their own plays, and kings keeping doors for them; the love of ladies, and the brilliant flashings of chivalry,—all these things come upon us, as memories peculiar

to France; and in its splendid capital centre all the recollections that emblazon ancient or modern times.

On the whole, we think a "Life in Paris" (not printed), might be something of singular interest. The revolution alone has made it a spot we love to recur to, though a bloody one. We look on the Tuilleries, and Burke and Marie Antoinette come before us, beautiful personifications of eloquence and loveliness! We turn, and the maiden and guillotine, streaming with blood of kings and queens, are the horrible objects that meet us,—and that perfection of beauty lies in her gore! To relieve ourselves we naturally recur to the times of the great Henry, and fancy his solemn entry into the capital, attended by the noble Sully,—both king and minister leaving no equal behind them. We set off the edict of Nantz against the decapitation of Louis, and our mind grows easy again—until, in turn, we grow sick of Paris and royalty altogether, as we behold the great Navarre falling under the blow of a maniac. But then you may see this city, at another glance, glittering under the gold and stars of brave knights and soaring monarchs, and sending forth gigantic warriors to become emperors of Jerusalem, under the banner of the Cross. Charlemagne cared little for Paris,—he was too much of a conqueror, to think at all of his capital; Clovis, on the contrary, by special act, made it the seat of his kingdom. At all these periods, we have reason to believe, that this metropolis possessed singular attractions. Not that they consisted in *restaurateurs* and operas, and all the modern *fanfaronade* of life, which is said to make this city the most bewitching place on the earth; but there was something like a moral fascination about it, that, especially in early times, made it rival the empire of the East, in the bosoms of more warriors than one. We are told, that the emperor Julian was accustomed, even in his time, to talk largely and enthusiastically of his "dear Paris," his "beautiful Paris," and declared, that he was averse from leaving its delights to be made emperor in Constantinople. It is well known, that Constantius, his predecessor, grew uneasy at his long delay in France, whither he had despatched him, and, on sending messengers to recall him, we find him, *ad libitum*, in this same city, where, no doubt, he was enchanted, and where, we believe, he was proclaimed by his soldiers, who were as unwilling to return, as their general. Thus early we have the tribute of the Apostate; and, if Paris could enthrall one of the Cæsars in 361, we are willing to make a fair allowance for its attractions in 1825.

Napoleon,—the exiled, dead Napoleon,—loved Paris next to his ambition, or, perhaps, to Josephine. He was always singularly eager to get back to it, after his equivocal battles; and no one will deny, that he discovered great anxiety to reach it, after his landing from Elba. So it was after Waterloo. But Bonaparte had good reason to be proud of Paris, for he made it in many respects the pride of the world. Paris was rich in genius and letters, when Voltaire, and D'Alembert, and Helvetius, and Diderot sparkled in its circles; it was rich when such men as Moliere, and Racine, and Corneille enjoyed the splendid patronage of Richelieu and Louis XIV. Yet, if we must choose between the ages, should we be guilty of heresy to call the first mentioned the golden one? Voltaire, blessing the grandson of Franklin, in the name of *God and Liberty*, has again made Paris dear to our recollections; and richest of all, do we believe, it has been made by Napoleon himself. We confess we have sometimes been at a loss to trace the operation of the emperor's republicanism, which he professed so boldly in his bulletins, and our faith in his *popular* principles has been often staggered; but the noble spirit that throws open such a gallery as the Louvre, and renders such interminable libraries accessible to the meanest subject of the realm, without questions asked or reasons rendered, can boast better things than conquests. Another matter would lead us to suppose, that Napoleon was absolutely democratical in his principles and intentions, and bent on the levelling system with a vengeance. We are told, that the imperial Paris has no *sidewalks*, and it is well known that the law of the road is a subject about which the capital has made few inquiries, and less regulations. What does an American say to this? What says a New Yorker,—who can scarcely hail a hackney-coach over the wide flags that skirt his own Broadway? Yet they should have no such monarchical things as flag-stones in Paris! Bonaparte could hardly have been more bitter against the Pope. Pity that the Palais Royal affords the only safe promenade, save the gardens, where John and Jonathan can walk in a straight line, and insured against the tilburies!

The opera, if we mistake not, constitutes a fair portion of life in Paris. We feel somewhat tender on this subject, as this brilliant kind of entertainment has just been introduced among us. But we should feel more tender still, we think, if we were obliged to approach Signorina Garcia under a guard of soldiery, and leave our ticket of admission on the point of a bayonet. We would prefer the freedom of the Louvre, or an issue forth over

the Pont-Neuf, at the risk of seeing some suicide dragged from the Seine, to frighten us. Seriously, these guards are sore matters at play-houses, where the people are civilized; and though we are willing to believe that both Boston and Mr Kean would have felt the propriety and convenience of a few sons of Mars on a late occasion, yet, on the whole, we are free to surrender all such appendages to the continental cities. With France, however, every thing is *à la militaire*, and we doubt whether Talma could play without one of the *gens d'armes* in his eye.

To the man of *modern* feelings, Paris presents a notable cluster of associations. The revolution of 1814, and the entrance of Alexander at the head of the allies; the abdication of Napoleon; the farce played by the Prince of Benevento; and the series of duels which were played off nightly in the streets; all these matters will make him thrill with a curious delight, ascending as the soldier, politician, or bully preponderates in his reflections. But for the scholar, we are afraid the *very modern* Paris, must yield in fascination to the capital as it was under some more energetic, though less interesting and less unfortunate Louis, than him called the Sixteenth, or even his brother that has just departed. The *Augustan age* of French literature, when patronage was proud, and poets made palace and court ring with their music; when cardinals made matters of state yield to the cause of letters, and generals courted Minerva in her undress,—this was the time for the scholar! If this would not do, and our faith be a mistaken one, another step will bring you to Rousseau, drunk with literary enthusiasm, and Voltaire with his hundred volumes; and Paris is before you, teeming with a disembogued Academy, coming to bear the philosopher into its sacred precincts; and the Theatre thundering with applause round its restored exile; and if these, too, are not enough to make the city dear to the literary reminiscent, he will find scores of men beside, who held brilliant career in that time, whose genius would save,—if genius could do it,—ten places as imperial as Paris. As for Napoleon, he has aimed at being a Justinian, and, perhaps, believed he had done as much for letters, as was good for his metropolis in his day. Certain it is, there was one kind of knowledge, which is the peculiar growth of these latter days, that he held it heresy to patronize; and, accordingly, we find Madame de Staël frightening him worse than Moscow, wherever he went, because she had only the *reputation* of a *liberal*.

But we have said enough about Paris. We have no apprehension, that what we have written, will keep any from going

there who really intend it, or make others wish to go, who care nothing about it. We only recommend to others not to visit the capital through the medium of this book. There are some good things in it, but the writer has nothing to do with them. These excellent things are some score or two of *mezzotinto* engravings, finely designed and executed. We have seen before some of the handiwork of Mr George Cruikshank, and are free to acknowledge his powers are almost inimitable. If Paris, in his hands, be Paris *in re*, we would be willing to rival the Aleppo pilgrim to get a sight at it once a year. Meanwhile, we are not backward to believe, that this fair city of the rainbow may be all the *savans* tell us, and can easily conceive that a disciple of Mahomet might mistake it for his promised paradise; for we have read of a certain king of France, who, being comforted on his deathbed, with assurances of a perennial throne in the regions of the blessed, replied, with a melancholy air, that he was perfectly satisfied with the Tuilleries and France.

The Last of the Mohicans; a Narrative of 1757. By the Author of "The Pioneers." In two Volumes. Philadelphia. 12mo. pp. 282 and 289.

The Last of the Mohicans has probably been more generally popular than any of the preceding productions of its author. Even those who have not hitherto been his admirers, acknowledge, that they have read this work with a strong interest. In many respects, it exhibits an improvement upon those which have gone before. It is superior to them in point of literary execution. It is more like the offspring of a practised writer. His style is free from many of those imperfections, which have formerly been pointed out as existing in it. It is more chaste and manly, though still susceptible of farther improvement.

We take it for granted, that we are speaking to those who have read this book; for it would be evidence of an overweening vanity to suppose that we are read where Mr Cooper is not. We shall, therefore, enter into no account of its plan or contents, and make no extracts. The plot has little complexity or variety. There is hardly, indeed, what we call a complete connected plot at all. There is no one principal object, at which all the events are made to aim, and to which they all tend. It presents to us

a certain number of personages, and exhibits them in a series of situations and under circumstances which excite a powerful interest. But they do not move forward in a very connected manner, each contributing towards the accomplishment of the business of the piece. The events, as they occur, are well described, and individually produce a full effect upon the feelings, but there is nothing like the effective tendency of a grand campaign, in which every position and every action is made to contribute to the main object, and advance the principal design.

There is a great fault in the very circumstance from which the work derives its chief attraction with most readers. The interest is too much forced; it is kept up wholly by artificial means. The persons engaged in carrying on the story, are in perpetual danger of their lives. We cannot feel at ease for them a single moment. They run the gauntlet, beset on every side, by hungry savages, thirsting for their blood, through two whole volumes. We are told on every page of "such disastrous chances, such hair-breadth 'scapes, such moving accidents by flood and field," that a sympathy is excited in our minds totally independent of any merit in the execution. This may be either good or bad. But whether good or bad, we are forced into a certain degree of interest. Situations of this kind are the resource of many very inferior writers, and a resource of which they avail themselves to very great advantage.

But it will never do to make up the whole story of our novels of such materials as these. The artifice grows stale. A battle, a murder, a scalping, or even a massacre of defenceless women and children, may be well introduced now and then. Served up only occasionally, they retain all their relish, and relieve us from the dull monotony of love-making conversation and bad jokes. But to make an every-chapter business of them is too much. A yankee once asked a British officer, who was boasting of the signal success of His Majesty's arms at Bunker Hill, how many such battles he could afford to gain. We put the same question to Mr Cooper, how many novels can he afford to write. How many changes can he ring upon scalping, shooting, tomahawking, &c. and still keep up a wholesome and palatable variety.

This mode of doing things must soon come to an end. We get used to these horrible scenes and they cease gradually to excite us. By the time one has gone nearly through with these adventures, he feels such an entire confidence in the abilities of Hawk-eye and his savage associates, that he ceases to feel any

anxiety on their behalf. He is able to read on of more escapes, more murders, and more scalping, with the most entire composure; and he may well exclaim

> I have supped full with horrors.
> Direness familiar to my slaughterous thoughts
> Cannot once start me.

The principal action of a work of fiction should relate to events of a more even and every-day kind. The continuous interest should depend upon the development and the display of passions, emotions, and affections under ordinary and probable circumstances. Extraordinary events may be occasionally introduced to relieve the monotony of this course and produce a temporary excitement. But to make of them the main business, is stimulating too highly for an every-day diet.

Another fault we find is with the improbability of most of the principal events, and, in fact, of the whole course of the story. That two young ladies should have had the audacity to penetrate through the wilderness to the fort at all, during so critical a period, is full enough; but that, having determined upon this measure, they should reject the escort of a large body of troops, of which they might have availed themselves, and instead of taking the beaten road, strike off into the woods, protected only by a major of the gallant 60th, a crackbrained psalm-singer, and a suspicious Indian guide, passes all reasonable credulity. It is true we may be brought up by the remark, that had not our heroines been thus adventurous, there would have been an end of the matter at once, and we should have had no novel. But that, we reply, is none of our business. The author has his book to write, and we dare say could have found some other course; for when were young men and women deficient in ways and means of getting themselves into difficulty?

Not that an author should be confined to such characters as have really existed, or such events as have really taken place. He should have wider scope. He may avail himself not only of all probable, but even of all possible combinations. But in using this liberty he is to be upon his guard, lest he crowd these extraordinary, though possible combinations, too closely together and in too great numbers. For although singly the mind may admit them to be possible; in conjunction they become incredible.

It was sufficiently within the bounds of possibility, for a novel, that our whole party should have escaped as they did, after the affair at Glenn's, with a whole skin. Yet, we confess, had there

been either limbs or lives to spare, we should have preferred a small return of killed, wounded, or missing upon our side, considering the tremendous slaughter upon the other. But when we are led through successive perils, all equally alarming; and successive escapes, all equally marvellous; it becomes a matter of plain demonstration, that the loss could not be always thus on one side. What makes this matter the more provoking is, that the author, after having thus exercised our credulity through the whole piece, and saved his *dramatis personæ* through fire, wood, and water so many times, should, in the conclusion, wantonly sacrifice two of them in whom we felt the chief interest; at a period too, when they were upon the eve of final success, and when the dangers surrounding them were not nearly equal to those from which they had been repeatedly rescued.

This brings us to the catastrophe, with which we are by no means satisfied. We are in general disposed to have works of fiction terminate happily. We like a good wedding or two, to set all right. Still we know that this cannot always happen in real life, and that, for the sake of variety, as well as probability, the dark side must be sometimes turned towards us in fiction. But we had reason to believe that Cora and Uncas were preserved through so many dangers for some good end. Every event as we go along points to a favourable termination, when just at the winding up, the design seems to be capriciously reversed, and these two unfortunate persons are most summarily and unnecessarily disposed of. The vessel, having braved all the dangers of her voyage, sinks as she is floating into smooth water. We are aware indeed of one objection to this disposition of the catastrophe, in the passion of Uncas for Cora, and of Cora, as we conclude, for the major; but this is a part of the business that might with ease have been differently arranged. Uncas would have made a good match for Cora, particularly as she had a little of the blood of a darker race in her veins,—and still more, as this sort of arrangement is coming into fashion, in real life, as well as in fiction.

But the main objection is, that this termination does not harmonize with the general strain and spirit of the preceding part of the work. Now we hold it to be a fundamental law in the construction of a narrative, that the catastrophe is to correspond to and be the natural result of the preceding events. It is to be of a piece with what has gone before. It is not to be brought about by an accidental concurrence of circumstances at the conclusion, unless that accident be necessary to make it correspond

to the general strain and spirit of the composition, as in King Lear and Hamlet. In short the catastrophe should correspond to the state of mind into which we have been brought by the tenor of the preceding part of the work. Our feelings are violated if it is not so, as any one knows very well, who, after having been moved, melted, filled up to the brim with sacred grief, in witnessing Shakspeare's part of Lear, sees the old man, in the last act, come in, figuring to Tate's blank verse, with a *smile* upon his countenance; like a jest at the end of a sermon. As if Lear *could do* any thing but die. This is putting new wine into old bottles with a vengeance. In "Kennilworth" and "The Bride of Lammermoor," those two noble tragic romances, there is a concurrence of circumstances which gradually thicken upon us as the story is developed, and which render the termination inevitable. There is no evading it. It is true, in such cases, we hope and hope on to the end, that something may turn up—as we do with a friend in a consumption. Our feelings, warmly interested for some particular characters, lead to this; for, if we reason the matter at all, we see that there is no remedy, and that the conclusion is absolutely demanded. And, as we have before said, although the *means* may be accidental, and the final event depend upon a moment too soon, or a moment too late, this does not lessen the intrinsic propriety of the catastrophe. But it is a very different case, where an accident is made to bring about a catastrophe not consistent with the preceding narrative, not corresponding to the first expectations which have been excited, not consonant to the state of feeling which has been produced. This is that sort of violation of probability upon which the novelist should not venture, and this we apprehend is the case with "The Last of the Mohicans."

The representation given of the Indian character, is probably, as far as it goes, accurate; it is certainly interesting. We should have preferred to see more of it in the social and domestic state, instead of being introduced to a few wandering and solitary individuals. Still it seems as successful as any which has been attempted, and is apparently the fruit of much pains and considerable attention to the subject. One thing, however, is carried somewhat too far, and occupies too much time, the trail hunting. With due deference to the better judgment of our author, we must venture to express our incredulity with regard to some of the wonders performed by Hawk-eye and his Indian friends. Had we been barely told of their results, it might have passed off very well. But when we come down to a minute detail of the par-

ticular methods employed, signs observed, and processes of reasoning entered into by the savages, our belief is staggered. Here is a great want of shrewdness on the part of the writer. As long as we merely look on and perceive that the savage, by some means peculiar to himself, but inscrutable to us, is able to follow in the track of his flying foes, and, as if by intuition, to determine their number, sex, and age, there is something obscure and mysterious in the faculties which has an imposing effect. But when he is shown to us, squatting down among bushes and dried leaves, measuring footsteps, discussing the length of this heel and that toe, the charm is lost. It is like surveying the beauties of a grand painting through a microscope. The whole poetry of this faculty of the Indian is annihilated.

We have only a few words to say about the principal characters which take a part in "The Last of the Mohicans." Hawk-eye, or, as he is half the time called without any obvious propriety, "the scout;" or, according to another *alias*, Nathaniel Bumppo, is by far the best drawn, as well as the most important person of the whole. It is true that he is only a second edition of Leather-stocking in the Pioneers, and he is by many supposed to represent the same person at an earlier period of his life. But it is no small merit, to have taken up the same character and carried it through a second novel, with complete success. We would gladly travel over a third in his company; only remarking in the mean time, that he has some habits which might well be corrected before another appearance. He might in future be taught to laugh like other people, for of his own peculiar "silent, heartfelt manner," most readers must have been, we think, as tired as we were.

The delineation of the Indian character, as has just been remarked, is successful. The heroines are as well set forth, as such persons generally are; Cora, perhaps, a little better. But then she has the best part to play. It is easier to describe equally well an efficient, than an inefficient character. Duncan Heyward, or the major, is the hero, which is saying perhaps all that can well be said. That he was a major, was his misfortune, but it is surely Mr Cooper's fault; who certainly has a most unaccountable propensity, in "these weak piping times of peace," for bemajoring and be-captaining his heroes. David Gamut is a bore in every sense of the word. Invested with that official situation of bore, which is a necessary appendage of the modern novel, as the fool was of ancient royal courts, he is also a bore in his own proper person. His introduction into a story like this, is one of

the strangest conceits that ever entered into the head of a romance writer. He is not only in himself, a caricature, an absolute monster of his species, even admitting such a species to exist; but he is totally out of place; there is nothing for him to do, either in amusing the reader or advancing the plot. He is so much dead capital on the author's hands, and should have been reserved for some occasion on which he would at least have brought lawful interest.

Another individual, Colonel Munroe, fails sadly. His character, as exhibited in the first volume, is well sustained, and excites a good deal of sympathy. Such a change from vigor and spirit to absolute dotage in so short a period, is totally unnatural. The natural tendency of such misfortunes as befell him, would be to call forth energy, not to annihilate it; to rouse the powers both of mind and body to action, not to put them to sleep. Here is a fine veteran soldier transformed all at once into a whining, pusillanimous old man; who, although he had just before defended his post like a hero against superior force, upon the occurrence of a family calamity, wanders about the woods as if he were half asleep, and not like a distracted father in search of his lost children. He exhibits nothing of the tenderness or dignity of grief in his deportment.

There are many other circumstances in this work which render it very open to criticism, but we do not wish to dwell too much upon its faults. The notice now taken of them does not proceed from any want of insensibility to its beauties; but it seems to be more important, in speaking of a book of this kind, so popular and so universally read, that its faults rather than its merits should be enlarged upon. The majority of readers are fully able to appreciate the latter themselves, but are not so likely to consider the former. And although it would be a very ill-natured thing to dwell upon faults merely for the pleasure of exhibiting them; it is still very desirable that it should be done, for the sake of its influence upon the public taste. By the critical and candid discussion of the merits of works generally read, the public is to be aided in settling the standard of taste,—in forming an opinion not merely of this or that particular work, but upon the merits of literary performances in general. Not that we have the presumption to claim the privilege of dictating to any man his opinions upon such subjects, or of saying authoritatively, what is or what is not conformable to good taste. We only claim a right to take part in that free discussion which is going on now-a-days about every thing, and which, however unimportant its pro-

ducts may seem with regard to each individual who enters into it, results, upon the whole, in the establishment of sound views and well-founded principles.

So far Mr Cooper certainly has had no just cause of complaint, either against the critics or against the public. The public have read him, have applauded him, and, above all, have been proud of him. The critics have not been sparing of praise where it was deserved, whilst censure has been administered with a gentle and unwilling hand. His peculiar excellencies have been often commented upon. We acknowledge them to be very great; they are universally and fully appreciated, and this very circumstance renders it more desirable that his works should be critically examined and their character thoroughly canvassed.

This we say by way of apology, if any apology be indeed necessary, for the sort of notice taken of "The Last of the Mohicans." Upon the whole we should think it superior to any of the family, and there are parts of it which would do honour to almost any pen.

Sketches of Algiers, Political, Historical, and Civil; containing an Account of the Geography, Population, Government, Revenues, Commerce, Agriculture, Arts, Civil Institutions, Tribes, Manners, Languages, and recent Political History of that Country. By WILLIAM SHALER, American Consul General at Algiers. Boston. 8vo. pp. 310.

A QUEER and quaint scholar of the age of Charles II. advises all who try to talk Latin and find themselves at their wit's end, to begin with the word "utcunque" (which means, gentle reader, "howsoever"), and trust, that the residue of a sufficient sentence will follow in due season. In like manner, it has grown to be a fashion with reviewers, &c. when they are under the necessity of saying something, and know not what, to begin with announcing the interesting fact, that "we live in a remarkable age;" it being pretty easy to talk about this until one can get sight of his subject. As this custom has come to be pretty well understood by the reading public, we do not care to fall into it oftener than we must; and beg our readers not to suspect us of having nothing else to say, if we preface our notice of Mr Shaler's book by the remark, that one of the characteristics of this singular age, and one of the indications of its spirit, may be found in the number

of delusions, which the progress of inquiry and knowledge is, day by day, dissipating. Popular opinion is becoming wiser; things are assuming in men's views their genuine forms and relations; important facts are no longer taken for granted, because they have the support of a conventional and a traditional belief; and it is conceded to the awakened reason, that the surest method of judging aright, is to ground the judgment upon an examination and comparison of existing facts. Hence discoveries have been made, and long standing opinions reversed, and many old and popular delusions are rapidly clearing away before the growing light of investigation and reason. The notions entertained by all the world, respecting the Barbary powers, constituted one of these delusions. A while ago, when darkness covered the earth, a band of pirates seized upon spots on the northern coast of Africa, and for three hundred years laboured in their vocation, at the expense of all Christendom. They declared war against all Christian nations, and waged war, too, in the most merciless manner. Why were not these miserable robbers exterminated at once? It is difficult to answer this question, and it will be difficult for coming generations to believe, that these same robbers,—hardly numerous enough to be fairly called a nation,—continued to rob, and enslave, or murder all the Christians whom they could catch, through successive generations, without effectual resistance; and that the den whither they bore the fruits of their rapine, although within easy reach of aggrieved and insulted Christendom, and perfectly assailable by sea and land, was scarcely molested until a new and distant people set the example of resistance. The prosperity of these banditti ended at once; the charm was broken; the power of the Algerines departed with the opinion that they were powerful. In 1815 we gave the Barbary powers some useful information respecting their utter inability to maintain their preposterous pretensions; which, says Mr Shaler, "has made a deeper impression than any other lesson they have ever received, since their infamous existence." We revealed the secret of their weakness; or rather, we made the absurdity of submitting to their aggressions too manifest to be any longer endured. We compelled them, by a mere exhibition of our force, to come to our terms at once; and shortly afterwards, the British and Dutch combined fleets assumed and executed the task of bringing upon these universal enemies a suitable visitation. Since that time, Christian slavery has been abolished in Algiers; few and feeble are the powers which now pay her tribute; and it cannot be long be-

fore the contempt universally felt for her, will be equal to the fear which she once inspired. The work which Mr Shaler has given to the public, will help strongly to produce correct impressions on this subject. It is valuable and interesting, as it supplies a want long felt; for since Dr Shaw published his learned work a hundred years ago, but little has been told respecting Algiers, and of that little but a very small part has any value or authority. Mr Shaler went to Algiers in 1815, as commissioner, with Captains Bainbridge and Decatur; and peace having been established, he has remained there ever since, excepting a few short intervals, as Consul General for this country. His work sustains his character as a shrewd, observing, and reflecting man; and is creditable to him and to the government which he represents.

The first three chapters of this work treat of the boundaries and extent, the climate and productions, of the kingdom of Algiers; of the language, religion, and manners prevailing there; the form and principles of the government, and the general statistics of the country. It seems, that the opinions which have been held respecting the Algerines generally, are true only as applied to the few Turks who govern the country. The corps of Janissaries, which seldom exceeds five thousand men, is recruited from the gaols, brothels, and streets of the Ottoman empire; and from this corps all the offices of state must be filled. There are some rare instances of the sons of these Janissaries being elected as beys, but the rule is, that no person born in Algiers shall hold any important station in the government. This being well understood and established, the natives take little interest in, and suffer little harm from the most violent revolutions of their rulers; a circumstance, which, taken in connexion with a very strict and efficient police, gives as much security to life and property in the city of Algiers, as can be found anywhere. We should suppose from Mr Shaler's remarks, that these advantages were enjoyed in a much less degree in the country at large. Besides the frequent assaults and incursions of the various tribes within the kingdom, that preserve an actual independence, the established practice of the government must of necessity strike at the root of all national prosperity and happiness. Such passages as those which we extract below, cause some surprise that the whole of this beautiful country is not a desolate wilderness.

Though the election of the Dey of Algiers is by the institutions of the Regency vested in the Divan, it is usually the result of the intrigues of a predominant faction amongst the Janissaries, and is

generally a sanguinary tragedy. A Dey is murdered to make room for some more fortunate adventurer; his immediate friends and adherents perish, or are plundered and exiled, and the public business or tranquillity is not interrupted beyond twenty-four hours. These revolutions succeed each other with a rapidity which can hardly be credited by those who are unacquainted with the barbarous character and manners of the Turks. A Dey of Algiers, while alive, is the most despotic and implicitly obeyed monarch on earth; but his reign is always precarious, and it is by *mere accident* if he dies a natural death. Any Turk who has been regularly enrolled in the corps of Janissaries is eligible to the eminent post of Dey, except the natives of Bosnia and of Crete; no other qualifications are required, and the caprice of fortune has sometimes raised the most obscure and ignoble characters to the throne. Tradition points out the graves of seven adventurers who were raised to the throne and perished on the same day; as a mark of contempt they were interred in the public highway. Neither can a person elected refuse or resign the honour of ruling in Algiers; he must either reign or perish.

The three provinces are governed by Beys, who are appointed by the sovereign, to whom his despotic authority is delegated as his lieutenants; a Khalif, or intendant, is also appointed to each by the same authority. Each province is taxed in a specific sum, according to its supposed capacity to pay, which is paid semi-annually into the public treasury, as will hereafter be noticed when I treat of the revenues of this country. The situation of these governors is necessarily precarious, and the tyranny and oppression which they exercise within their respective jurisdictions, to procure the means of keeping their places, are probably without a parallel in the history of any other country. Such is the wretched condition of the inhabitants of this kingdom, that a mild and equitable administration by the governor of a province, would be regarded as an attempt at popularity dangerous to the general government, and, as experience has proved in several instances, might cost the offender his fortune and his life. * * *

The lands of this kingdom are believed to be all taken up and enregistered, as far as the real jurisdiction of the government extends; though from the frequent and often arbitrary confiscations, the national domain must be immense. Beyond the immediate precincts of the principal towns, the lands possess very little value, considered as real estate; for a general system of prohibition of exportation of the produce of this country, except a few articles which constitute monopolies, as will be hereafter noticed, has reduced the agriculture and trade of the kingdom to a most deplorable state. The Turks, who govern here, influenced by their narrow, selfish views, are jealous of any prosperity which is not immedi-

diately under their control. It seems that instinct has given them a just conception of the case in question; for if agriculture and commerce were encouraged even in this Mohammedan land, its natural advantages are such, that great wealth must ensue, and with it a degree of civilization, and increase of population, that would render it very difficult for a handful of barbarian adventurers to govern the country in their present arbitrary manner. * * *

The plain of Metijah, the eastern part of which is contiguous to the city of Algiers, is probably one of the most valuable expanses of territory, its climate, position, and the fertility of its soil considered, that exists on our globe. It contains about one thousand square miles of surface, is watered by innumerable springs, and streams from the surrounding mountains, and is probably capable of furnishing subsistence to a population relatively greater than any other on earth. If this unfortunate country should ever, in the course of events, again come into the enjoyment of the benefits of civilization, the city of Algiers, through the natural resources of the plain of Metijah, must become one of the most opulent on the shores of the Mediterranean. Through the silent operation of the barbarous despotism of the Algerine government, it has become a perfect desert, without inhabitants or culture.

We have found Mr Shaler's account of the manners and customs of Algiers very entertaining; but our limits will not permit us to extract more than may suffice to give our readers a fair specimen of his style in discussing or describing these matters.

The partial civilization of this part of Barbary after the fall of the Roman dominion here, probably dates from the conquest of the Arabs. The commercial resources of Africa appear to have created or continued several cities on this coast, whose origin, or second birth, from the want of historical records, would now be sought for in vain. The city of Algiers is in this predicament, and can lay no claim to importance above any of the obscure cities of Barbary, before its conquest by the Turks. Its inhabitants are an amalgamation of the ancient Mauritanians, the various invaders subsequent to the above periods, the emigrants from Spain, and the Turks; and are now generally denominated Moors. This mixture appears to be a very happy one, for there are few people who surpass them in beauty of configuration; their features are remarkably expressive, and their complexions are hardly darker than those of the inhabitants of the south of Spain.

Foreigners seldom have an opportunity of seeing the Moorish women, but from the few furtive occasions that have fallen to my lot, the reports of foreign ladies resident here, and the extraordinary beauty of their children, I am inclined to think that they may vie with any other in point of personal charms. Their principal characteristics of beauty are elegant forms, large dark eyes,

long eyelashes, and fine teeth; but the beauty which is most prized in this country, is that of excessive corpulency. The Moorish women, however, as they arrive very early at maturity, being often married at twelve years of age, fade equally soon; I am informed that their finest women are completely in the wane of their beauty at twenty-five, when they are often grand-mothers; this may be in a great degree owing to the excessive use, or rather abuse of the steam bath.

From remote antiquity the inhabitants of this country have been styled inconstant and treacherous; this imputation may be regarded as not unfounded now, but they are far from being the ferocious barbarians which the term Algerines seems by common consent to imply. They are a people of very insinuating address, and in the common relations of life, I have found them civil, courteous, and humane. Neither have I ever remarked any thing in the character of these people that discovers extraordinary bigotry, fanaticism, or hatred of those who profess a different religion; they profess the Mohammedan creed, and fulfil with the utmost scrupulousness the rites which it ordains, but without affectation, and as far as I have remarked, without hostility to those who adopt different measures to conciliate the Divine favour. I am well aware that this character of the Algerines is contrary to what has been heretofore promulgated, and to the general belief of the world; but my impressions of them, which I have received from a long residence in Barbary, differ very much from the general opinion, particularly within the last fifty years.

The following paragraph contains the larger part of his remarks upon the literature and literary means and institutions of Algiers.

Common schools are, however, numerous in Algiers, where boys of the age of five or six years and upwards, are taught to read and write. From the invariable character of the customs of these countries, I am induced to believe that their practice is the probable origin of the Lancasterian system of tuition. Each scholar is provided with a board, upon which any thing may be fairly written with chalk, and easily effaced; a lesson from the Koran is transcribed in fair and legible characters upon one of these boards, which is then copied upon all the others, the scholars mutually teaching each other, both in the meaning, and in the formation of the letters of the text. These lessons are loudly rehearsed to the pedagogue, who sits upon his heels in a corner with a long rod, through the terror of which he maintains order and due attention amongst his scholars. Thus reading and writing are taught simultaneously, and the beautiful uniformity that characterizes the Arabic handwriting, is probably owing to this method of tuition. The education of the Algerine youth is completed when, having

learnt to read and write the Koran, he is duly instructed by the same preceptor in the forms and modes of prayer. The expenses of this course of education are very trifling, and I am informed that similar schools are kept by women for the instruction of young girls. I think there can be no doubt that these people stand on the very brink of civilization, and might be easily led into it through a system of government less repugnant to improvement in its principles and practice, than that under which they live.

He closes his description of the architecture of Algiers, and particularly of his own house, thus:

This house is entered by only one external door, which is solid and strong as that of a fortress, so that the family inhabiting it, have every thing within themselves, without fear of intrusion. All the floors are paved with marble, or with Dutch painted tiles, and the walls of the apartments are covered, to the height of about four feet, with the same species of tiles of a finer quality.

In all the houses of Algiers, there is contrived a small apartment at the outer door, and without the area of the house, where the host receives visits, and transacts business; as, on account of the women, no stranger is ever received within his domicil, except on extraordinary occasions. This apartment is called the Skiffa, and in this house is spacious and elegant. The exterior of all the houses in Algiers is kept neatly whitewashed, which, at a distance, gives a very brilliant appearance to the city. I have been thus particular in describing the house I inhabit, as well to give the reader an idea of Algerine architecture, as also a notion of the value of real estate here; this house is supposed to have cost about one hundred thousand dollars, and I occupy it at an annual rent of two hundred and fifty dollars. In past times of prosperity, the Algerines indulged very much in the luxury of building, and there are in consequence many houses in the city that are equal or superior to mine. It is forbidden to all Mussulmans, on very severe penalties, to visit the terraces of their houses during daylight, which are held sacred to the women; but as this prohibition is not extended to Christians, we sometimes, on fine evenings, obtain a sight of those fair recluses, who, availing themselves of this scanty privilege, take the air on the flat-terraced roofs of their houses.

The following remarks contradict very decidedly the general opinion respecting the horrors of Algerine slavery.

Female captives were always treated with the respect due to their sex; the labour required of the men was not excessive; those who could find security that they would not escape, were allowed to go at large on the payment of about seventy-five cents

per month; there were a number of lucrative offices that were always occupied by slaves, in which many enriched themselves; those who were employed in the palace, or attached to the great officers of state, were treated with the greatest mildness; and generally all who were industriously disposed easily found the means of profiting by it. In short, there were slaves who left Algiers with regret, and it is believed that in the aggregate, they carried away a vast sum of money at their embarkation. That they suffered occasional cruelty and hardship from the caprice or brutality of their keepers and overseers, cannot be doubted, for such are inseparable from the unprotected situation of captives of any description.

In the fifth chapter, Mr Shaler speaks of certain tribes of natives, who dwell within the kingdom of Algiers, and retain various degrees of independence. The principal among them have never been subdued by the Turks; and Mr Shaler draws from the consideration of their manners, languages, and history, plausible arguments,—to say no more,—in favour of the supposition, that they are the remnants of an original people, who have survived the successive conquests of the Carthaginians, the Romans, the Vandals, and the Turks, and have preserved through all these vicissitudes their language and principal characteristics.

We cannot exactly agree with our author in the unquestionable expediency of the seizure and colonization of these countries by England or some other European power. We should certainly feel nothing like regret, if the encampment of barbarians upon this delightful spot was broken up, and its unequalled natural advantages put into the hands of a people, who would use them more for their own good and the good of the world, than the recreants by whom they are now abused. But the idea of taking forcible possession of this country, simply on the ground that it might be better governed, seems to us to savour a little too much of the principle of "doing evil that good may come."

The extracts from the Journal of the American Consulate in Algiers, are very interesting, not only as they serve to illustrate the habits and principles of the Algerine Turks in their intercourse with foreigners, but as they place in strong and favourable light, the character of Mr Shaler, and the standing which he has acquired for himself and helped to acquire for his country, with the people among whom he resides. We regret that our limits will not permit us to give our readers any part of them. The tables and extracts at the close of the volume are well selected and valuable.

MISCELLANY.

LETTER FROM AN AMERICAN IN EUROPE.

Göttingen.

My Dear C.—As you are about to put on the academic habit, I suppose you will be interested in those who wear it, though of a different hue and fashion, in other countries. I will, therefore, give you a sketch of a German university. The name of university is perhaps connected in your mind with groves and gardens, with lofty and venerable halls. But by the indigent literati of this country, such things are deemed only the splendid trappings of idleness.

A German university is most properly to be regarded as an assemblage of learned professors. The greater their number or their fame, the more numerous the students who resort to them for the purpose of hearing their lectures. It is not here as in England, where the descendant of such a family, or the advocate of such a political creed, sends his children in consequence to Oxford or Cambridge. The celebrity of these institutions has frequently risen with the appointment, and declined upon the death, of one or two eminent individuals. The professors are appointed by the civil government of each state. There are different ranks among them. They are at first only "professores extraordinarii," with little or no salary from government. As they become more distinguished, they are advanced to the rank of "professores ordinarii;" then they receive successively, as a sort of retaining fee, to prevent their accepting offers from other universities, the honorary titles of Hofrath, Justiz-rath, Geheimer-rath, which may be translated, Counsellor of State, Counsellor of Justice, Privy Counsellor; in some few cases, Ritter, which is perfectly untranslatable; and last of all, one or two in a century arrive at the ultimum of a German's notion of earthly dignity, in the permission to set "von" (answering to the Dutch "van" and the French "de") before their name. For one might say, perhaps, without uncharitableness, that the Germans are title-mad. With this increase of honour, the salary increases too; though much the larger part of a professor's income arises from the fees he receives from those who attend his lectures.

Some time before the close of each *semester*, or semiannual term, a catalogue is published of the lectures to be delivered in the succeeding one. The students select those which most interest them, either from the celebrity of the lecturer, their own predilection for the subject, or its indispensable connexion with the pro-

fession they pursue. They wait upon the professor, whose course they intend to hear, and request a seat in his lecture-room. He gives them a ticket, with the number of the seat to be occupied, and they retire, leaving a louis-d'or (equal to four dollars) on the table. As each professor delivers three or more courses, and the more eminent have frequently above one hundred auditors, it is easy to perceive, that a popular professor might soon become comparatively opulent. Thus the professors act under the constant stimulus of ambition and of interest. Their intercourse with each other is but partial and limited. And I am sorry to say of these learned gentlemen, that there is an incredible degree of hatred and envy among them, which they often take no pains to conceal, even from the students; and the different gradations of rank before mentioned, while they keep the professors diligent, produce at the same time a supercilious spirit in the more distinguished, and a proportionate jealousy and ill-will in the rest. Where two professors read, or are desirous of reading lectures on the same subject, the hostility is naturally the greatest, as their interests are thus brought into actual conflict. This is true to such an extent, that, in the cities where the larger universities are found, it is necessary for every one, who invites the literati to a party, carefully to inspect the list of those to be invited, lest two professors who are not on terms of common civility, should be among the number, as they would infallibly destroy the harmony of the company. One professor, of some distinction in Göttingen, was so unfortunate in his temper, that when he was invited, it was hardly possible to send for any one else. Thus they laugh at each other, abuse each other, and emulously throw obstacles in each other's way, to the great edification of their pupils.

Their intercourse with the students is very slight. To those few whom they happen to know, their conduct is strikingly polite. But they meet these young men upon a footing of perfect equality; not as instructer and pupil, but as one gentleman meets another. It must not here be forgotten, that the professors are dependent for the larger part of their salary upon the good opinion of the students individually; and, accordingly, it will not be wondered at, that they neither exert, nor attempt to exert, any useful influence over them. On Sunday forenoon they hold a sort of levee, and then it is allowable for any one to call upon those professors whose lectures he attends.

Their lectures are full of scientific matter, usually arranged in admirable order. But they have no conception of a pleasing and graceful delivery; and their voices, probably from their inactive and sedentary life, are very bad; their manner often disagreeable even to the point of disgust. Literary labour, too, has now come to be as minutely divided as mechanical; and the advantage in

both cases is similar, in the more rapid progress of discovery. Yet the disadvantage also arises, that subordinate departments of study are elevated to an undeserved importance, and one science is dissected into several, to furnish as many professors with a livelihood.

Most of them despise dress, and some of them decency. They are rarely seen abroad, still more rarely at church. They are generally frugal and temperate. Their diligence is indefatigable; their literary acquisitions immense. They write books as easily, and almost as mechanically, as a joiner makes a bench or a table; and they speak to an acquaintance of the works they have written, with as much ease as we do of those we have read.

The students go from the high schools to the university. Their object, however, is the study of a profession, not, as in our colleges, the pursuit of general literature. The German students, therefore, stand on a level with our resident graduates, both as it regards age, and objects of pursuit. They pass no examination on entrance, for which they pay the fee of a louis-d'or. The only ceremony attending admission, is shaking hands with an officer, called "University Counsellor," and promising to obey the laws,—particularly two, which prohibit the student from duelling, and from entering any secret society. The number at Göttingen has usually been a little above fifteen hundred, of whom about seven hundred are students of law.

Beside the three classes of jurists, theologians, and medical men, which include the great majority of the students, some devote themselves exclusively to the classics, and are called philologians. But in general, any one who does not chiefly pursue one of the three leading professions, is called a student of philosophy. This is the only classification which exists. The only mode in which they receive the instructions of the professors, is, as has before been intimated, by hearing their lectures. On the striking of the public clock, the students are hastening in all directions through the streets, with portfolios under their arms, to the dwellings of their respective professors. On entering the auditorium, as the lecture-room is called, they employ themselves in mending their pens, and unscrewing their horn-inkstands, which they carry about in their pockets, till the professor enters. He immediately begins to read, and they to scribble in their note-books, and all they hear they write off with untiring and undiscriminating industry. When the clock strikes the next hour, the students, many of whom go directly to another lecture, close their note-books, and pluck up their inkstands; and the noise constantly increases, with stamping and hissing at last, unless the professor stops. He usually breaks off at the first period, without any regard to the context, and, of course, the next lecture must begin as abruptly as the last was broken off.

One of the most striking circumstances in the situation of the students, is their almost unlimited freedom. Attending lectures is the only duty required; but no bills of absence from the lectures are kept; and as they live in any part of the city at pleasure, and need not have the slightest intercourse with the professors unless they choose, it is not surprising that there are many who do not attend any lectures, and whose freedom becomes licentiousness. But a large majority are certainly diligent in their own way; that is, they attend from four to six courses of lectures every *semester*, which occupies that number of hours every day. But though the lecture-room is full at the beginning of the *semester*, it soon becomes thinner, till, towards the close of the term, not more than about half the original number continues to attend. Out of the lecture-room their conscience is clear; and I am of opinion, that the majority do not read any thing worth mentioning. A few there are, who unite themselves with two or three associates in a recapitulatory exercise, to recite the substance of the lectures they have heard. The philologians, and they alone, have a practical exercise with their professors. All the rest are only hearers. It is easy to perceive, that this mode of acquiring an education must have this good consequence,—that daily listening to the results of the patient and persevering study of men, who have devoted their whole life, in many instances a very long one, to the particular science they teach,—that this can hardly fail to give them the most just views of the subject discussed; and this ill consequence, that the prime end of education, the development of the student's mental powers, is entirely lost sight of, and he is, in consequence, often a mere copyist, and receives slavishly the opinions of his teachers.

As there are no classes, no literary distinctions among the students, the relation in which they stand to each other is necessarily wide of that which exists in our colleges; and thus, on the one hand, envy is extinguished, but on the other, there is no play for a noble and quickening emulation. The chief source of friendly connexion among them is the territorial division of Germany, by which every one belongs to a certain "Landsmannschaft," and with this connexion inherits certain friendships and enmities. Thence arise a large portion of those contemptible duels, which are the scandal of the German universities. Of the many idlers sauntering about the streets, and in the billiard rooms, some of different "Landsmannschafts" must necessarily come in contact, and the real or supposed affront is invariably settled by a duel. When one individual is involved in a dispute, others of his "Landsmannschaft" deem it a point of honour to take his part, and there are sometimes twenty or thirty duels in consequence of one young gentleman's having been pushed into the gutter. The parties

usually go to a neighbouring village on Sunday, as this is an idle day with the students, and there fight with broadswords, This shameful practice has not even the apology of a high-spirited courage, for the heads of the combatants are defended by a peculiar kind of large hat, and their bodies by a pair of pantaloons thickly stuffed for the purpose, which are drawn up as high as the breast, thus leaving little beside the face exposed. The combatants make twelve passes at each other, and then shake hands. But if one of them, as is usually the case, is hit sooner, the seconds and the surgeon interfere, and peace is made. If it be a deadly feud, and twelve passes have been made in vain on both sides, they go on to twenty-four. But German wrath very seldom burns so hotly as to bring them to exchange thirty-six. As might be expected, slit noses and scarred cheeks are common ornaments of the streets. During the time I have been here, the average of these duels has been something above one per day. The theological students fight duels frequently, though they have become a little reserved on that score, since the *consistoria* have declared that they will give no candidate a parish who has a duel scar on his face.

Besides the "Landsmannschaft," another bond of union among the students is the secret societies, whose objects are political. These have given a great deal of trouble to the government of Germany, by the intemperate zeal for liberty and independence which they have excited at the universities. Whenever they are discovered to exist, the most summary measures are instantly resorted to. They have been tolerably quiet for two or three years, but even during the last year [1824], such a one was discovered in the Prussian university of Halle, and one third of the students were expelled in consequence; report said, three were sent as stateprisoners to the fortress of Magdeburg.

For the purpose of enforcing the laws, large powers are vested in a University Court, consisting of a few professors only, expressly designated by government. Their efforts are almost exclusively directed against secret societies, and against duelists. They have an armed police at their disposal, and these are almost constantly in pursuit of the duelists. Those whom they catch are committed to prison, and if not expelled, they are usually punished, on conviction, with three or four weeks' confinement. Between the duelists and those arrested for debt by the citizens, the jail is kept generally full. Once in a great while, one is expelled for gross licentiousness. But in general, one might be idle or industrious, economical or extravagant, without praise or reproof.

Rebellions are frequent in the German universities. They originate sometimes in the hostility of a few against some professor, for the opinions he has expressed, or his manners towards his auditors; sometimes from the punishment of some duelist or leader in

the secret societies; sometimes in the mere fury of liberty. In such cases, the mutineers assemble in the streets, and compel all the students either to take part with them or quit the city. All are then sworn never to return to the university. They then leave the city in a tumultuous manner, singing songs of freedom, smoking their pipes, &c. The last rebellion at Göttingen was in the fall of 1823. It did not become general, but several hundred went off in a body to a mill, a few miles from the city, and there staid some days, eating pancakes, and smoking. They then proceeded toward Cassel, a number having avowed the intention of assassinating the Elector. This prince was not a little alarmed, and sent a body of horse to prevent them from entering his territories.

The students are so numerous, that when they unite, they can accomplish almost any thing they choose. One of the citizens insulted a student a few years since; the whole body were soon assembled, and entirely demolished the house of the offender. They have in a body made repeated exactions of the government, with which the latter have judged it prudent to comply. They obtained in this manner the right of free hunting for a certain number of miles round the city; a great privilege in Germany.

One word of their dress and manners. The professors wear hats; but the students universally wear caps, of different colour and fashion, according to their respective "Landsmannschafts;" the Prussian, for instance, is white, the Westphalian, scarlet. They usually wear a rough frock-coat, and when it rains, a great-coat, with a cape reaching nearly to the ground. This latter article of dress is very becoming, from the graceful folds of this huge cape. Their manners in the streets are often rough, and their appearance is not rendered more attractive by the fierce-looking mustachios which are frequently worn.

They usually take their meals entirely alone. They make their own coffee and tea, and their dinner is brought from a neighbouring tavern. When in their own rooms, they smoke almost constantly a pipe about a yard long. On Sundays when there are no lectures, and on Saturdays, when there are but few, the students are as numerous as ever in the streets, but instead of a port-folio, they carry a pipe. They are not allowed indeed by the police to smoke in the street, but they visit each other, and smoke for hours in company. And in passing through the city, at any hour, one is sure to see many a student's head thrust through the casement, smoking and staring at the passengers with imperturbable gravity. On their return after vacation, they salute an acquaintance by a shake of the hand, and a kiss on each side of the face. On bidding one another "Good-bye," at the end of the term, the same ceremony is repeated. This frequently occurs in public.

As for their amusements, smoking is by no means to be reckoned among them; it is as much a necessary of life with them as

their food. But music of all kinds; a walk on Sunday; or, if their purse will admit of it, a ride, six or eight together, in a large, open, dirty basket, put on four wheels, and drawn by two horses, that are often harnessed to the vehicle by ropes; playing at nine-pins of an afternoon, and at billiards of an evening; visits to the gardens just outside of the city, and to the dirty villages, at some distance, where the weary and thirsty refresh, and often intoxicate themselves with incredible quantities of bad wine, and worse beer;—these constitute the chief amusements of the future lights of Germany.

Consider this, my dear C——, as a very imperfect sketch of the prominent points in these universities. Like all human institutions, they contain mingled good and evil. To compare them, in general, with our own;—we read, and the Germans write. Among them, the professors must study, and thus great literati are formed; among us, the scholars, and thus useful men are formed. The different modes of education may, perhaps, not unaptly be compared to the different systems of European and American governments. Theirs elevates the few; ours refines and ennobles the many. Indeed we of the new world must appropriate the words of the English poet, and say of European institutions—

> Of old things all are over old,
> Of good things none are good enough;
> We 'll show that we can help to frame
> A world of other stuff.
>
> *Wordsworth's Rob Roy.*

Very affectionately, yours.

MYTHOLOGY OF THE LITHUANIANS,

TRANSLATED FROM THE "BULLETIN DES SCIENCES HISTORIQUES."

To these solemnities may be added the sacrifice, which was made to the gods, of a bull, or a he-goat, for the purchase of which, a contribution was made by a number of neighbouring villages. This festival also was celebrated for a long time after the introduction of Christianity, in spite of the severe prohibitions by the government of all such superstitious practices.

Grenovius, a monk of the order of St Dominic, going one day into the house of a peasant, found a crowd of people collected for a sacrifice. He would have been the victim of his imprudence, if he had not been acquainted with the dialect of the country. The Lithuanians spared his life only on condition that he should say nothing to the bishop of what he had seen.

Among almost all the people of Lithuanian origin, the girls wore little bells upon various parts of their dress. When they were married, these were removed, not by the bridegroom, but by two of his relations.

At the celebration of her marriage, the bride walked three times round a fire, kindled for that purpose. Her lips were then rubbed with honey, and she was conducted, blindfold, to each of the doors of the house, which she was obliged to touch, and also to strike the threshold with her right foot. One of the guests followed her with a bag, filled with grain of all kinds, from which he scattered over her a handful of rye, oats, peas, barley, beans, and poppy-seed, exclaiming at the same time, "The maiden will never be in want, so long as she respects the duties of religion, and takes good care of her household." At these words, the bandage was removed from her eyes, and the whole party sat down to supper. In the evening, her hair was cut off, and her head surrounded with a crown, and covered with a white handkerchief.

When a relation died, the peasants dressed the deceased in his best habit, placed him on a bench, and seated themselves round him to eat and drink, singing occasionally in a mournful tone, "Why did you die? You had plenty to eat and drink. Why did you die? You had a young and beautiful wife," &c. &c. This ceremony being finished, they made presents to the deceased; if a woman, they gave her a needle and thread; and a handkerchief, if a man. When they attended the corpse to the grave, they brandished a sabre, crying out, "Devils! fly away!" The wife of the deceased was obliged to mourn thirty days, and the relations invited the neighbours to a feast on the first, third, sixth, ninth, and fortieth day after the burial. They threw a morsel from each dish under the table for the use of the dead. At the close of the repast, the priest swept the apartment, and threw the sweepings from the window, with these words, "Spirits, since you have eaten and drunk, get you gone."

ORIGINAL POETRY.

SPIRIT OF MAY.

Welcome, thrice welcome, Spirit of May!
Blessings be round thy airy way;
Come, with thy train of rainbow hues,
Of hovering clouds and falling dews,—
Come to our garden beds and bowers,
And cover them over with leaves and flowers.
Already the summer bird is there,
And he sings aloud to the warm, warm air;
There he carols strong and free,
And his song and his joy are all for thee.

Come, when the sparkling rivers run,
Full and bright, to the gladdening sun;
Come, when the grass and springing corn
In their newest and tenderest green are born;
When budding woods and tufted hills
Wake to the music of foaming rills,
As they rush from their fountains deep and strong,
And in calm and in sunshine roll along;
Come, when the soft and winning air
Tells us a quickening life is there.

Come to our bosoms, Spirit of May!
We would not be sad, when the earth is gay;
Wake, in the heart that is newly strung,
The love that dwells with the fair and young;
Give, to their full and speaking eyes,
Visions, that glitter like sunset skies;
Waft them with quick and favouring gales,
Filling with music their glancing sails;
Theirs be a flight o'er a summer sea,
Where nothing of cloud or storm can be.

And give us, who long have bode the storm,
To feel for a moment our spirits warm;
Let the hopes, that once were a world of light,
Look out from our sorrows serene and bright,
Liks stars that come forth on the midnight air,
When the cloud has passed and the sky is fair;
Give us awhile to forget our cares,
And be light as thy own enlivening airs;
Let feelings of childhood awake like flowers,
When they open to catch the falling showers.

Come from thy palace, Spirit of May!
Where flowers ever blossom and fountains play!
Bring with thee Plenty's brimming horn,
And the tears of evening and dews of morn;
Build thy throne in the clear, blue air,
And Earth shall be bright, and Heaven be fair,
And the winds, that rushed from the rolling cloud,
And lifted their voices and called aloud,
Shall sink to a softer and mellower tone,
Like gales from a happy island blown.

Then the sea shall glow in its darkest bed,
And life shall revisit the mountain head;
And the valley shall laugh, and the forest ring,
For Joy shall be out on his glittering wing;

And the old shall praise, and the young shall stare,
As they hear his voice in the sunny air;
Glad shall their hearts and their spirits be,
When they know he is sent to tell of thee,—
To tell them, the Queen of Love and May
Is now on her bright, triumphal way.

P.

SPRING MORNING.

The sun is up, and cheerfully the birds
Their morning hymn are chanting, and the herds
From the deep vallies, through the wreathing mist,
Send up their lowings to the hills;—and list!
Faintly and far the shouts of childhood ring,
Borne upward through the clouds, whose cold wreaths cling
To the tree-tops,—and far adown the dale,
The pale, blue smoke hangs like a silvery veil
On the white cot,—while loit'ring on their way
The tinkling flocks wind o'er the meadows grey;
And half reclining on the bright lake's side,
Joined in the murmurs of the gurgling tide,
The fisher swells his song far o'er the valley wide.

It is the jubilee of earth; the gentle spring
Is breathing through the woods; and carolling
His cheerful song the woodsman's voice is heard,
Uprising from the glades, startling the carrion-bird
As high in air he wheels his stately flight,
Catching on outstretched wing the golden light;
Then scanning with a downward glance the glen,
Wings his lone flight far from the haunts of men.

Oh! who can stand upon the glorious hills,
When the first burst of radiant glory fills
Earth, sea, and sky,—flinging its mantle o'er
Each pyramid of granite, where the roar
Of the wild surge floats up the stilly air
So faint, so low, it makes no echo there;
Whose grey tops looming through the mist uprise,
Stretching their splintered summits to the skies,

The eternal throne of tempests,—where the winds
Lift up their fearful voices;—where begins
The long, long muttering of the thunder-cloud,
Rolling far o'er the world its echoes loud
Fainter and fainter, till its notes of fear
With a dull sound come murmuring on the ear.

Is thy heart sad? Go, stand upon the hills;
They 're Nature's temples, and His presence fills
Their awful grandeur; there no altar stone,
But the grey rocks with flow'rets overgrown,
Breathing their sweetness to the mountain air;—
If thou would'st pray,—go look,—and worship there.

F. M.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

Leisure Hours; a Series of Occasional Poems. Boston. 1826. 12mo. pp. 58.

When we took up this volume of Occasional Poems, and observed by the inscription, that the author was a graduate of the University, belonging to so late a class as that of 1824, we confess that our expectations were not much raised. But an attentive perusal has very agreeably disappointed us. We have seldom met with a collection of fugitive pieces from one and the same pen, which have sustained throughout so elevated a character; and we do not hesitate to say, that this volume, thin as it is, proves its author to be one of genius and promise. Some of the pieces possess too deep a spirit of melancholy for our taste; but there are others remarkable for liveliness and beauty. The following lines are very simple, and we believe they will be pronounced very natural, at least by all who did not graduate earlier than 1824.

TO IANTHE.

It is not much I ask of thee,
  My bird of beauty,—do but stand
Once more beneath the ancient tree,
Where thou wert wont to stand with me;
  Once more receive my proffered hand,—
Receive the vows thou gavest me then,
And give me back my own again.

It is not much I ask of thee,—
  To gaze once more upon thee, love;
And looking on me, thou shalt see,
How more than calm I then will be,
  How powerless all things are to move
A heart so wedded to its fate
That even hope were now too late.

It is not much I ask of thee,—
  Thy heart hath changed since first I knew thee;
Thy vows were like the fleeting sea;
Now even thy love would wasted be,
  For I am now too proud to woo thee;
But seek once more the ancient tree,
And I will ask no more of thee.

"The Young Trooper's Dirge" is spirited and manly, and may serve as a specimen of the poet's best manner.

THE YOUNG TROOPER'S DIRGE.

To horse,—to horse,—the bugles call,
  And sadly swells the mournful strain
That warns us to the burial
  Of one who ne'er shall mount again.
His course is run,—his fame is won,—
  For well he reined as free a steed
  As ever bore to daring deed,
When charging hosts came spurring on.

His course is run,—his battles done,—
  He died as aye he wished to die,—
The well-fought field was fairly won,
  And Victory pealed her clarion nigh:
Nor on his lip of beauteous pride,
  When high in hope he rode among
  The brave, the noble, and the young,
Wreathed such a smile as when he died.

Stern eyes became, as woman's, weak,
  Nor scorned to soil the clustering gold
That floated o'er his marble cheek
  With tears that would not be controlled.
For though none bolder struck with brand
  When boiling veins were up and wild,
  Yet never even the gentlest child
Had kinder heart or freer hand.

To horse,—to horse,—no more I weep;
  His high career was run full fast,
And so on battle-field I 'd sleep
  My last long sleep of death at last.
No more I weep,—but far away
  Are deep blue eyes to weep in vain,—
  Fair lips not soon to smile again,—
And hearts wail to this bitter day.

An Oration, delivered at Lancaster, February 21, 1826, in Commemoration of the One Hundred and Fiftieth Anniversary of the Destruction of that town by the Indians. By Isaac Goodwin. Worcester. 1826. 8vo. pp. 15.

Mr Goodwin notices briefly the principal epochs in the history of Massachusetts, and dwells more particularly upon that which commenced with the war against Philip in 1675–6. He has also collected many facts relating to the destruction of the ancient town of Lancaster by the Indians in 1676, and given rather a glowing description of the horrors of that event. Many judicious remarks are made upon the policy pursued by our forefathers in their intercourse with the natives, and the orator frequently indulges in patriotic reflections upon the condition and

prospects of our country. We select the following paragraph as another illustration of the remark, which we have frequently made, namely, that the intelligent portion of the community, in every part of our country, are beginning to demand a more energetic system of public instruction with a voice that must be regarded in the public councils.

The government under which we live is literally a popular government, and upon the discernment of the people depends many of our important measures. Projects of internal improvement, involving intricate questions of science, are daily presented for our consideration. The increase of the reading community demands for our public journals distinguished talent and laborious research, for these heralds of intelligence are now sought for by almost our whole population. We believe, therefore, the time is arrived, having been accelerated by a rapid increase of means, when our public schools should be placed upon a more liberal and elevated foundation; when high qualifications should be required in the instructers; when more discrimination should be used in the selection of school books; when a new zeal and higher interest should be felt upon the part of those who have the oversight of schools. We are not desirous that all our young men should be educated as statesmen or philosophers. But no man is capable of acting in the selection of a ruler, unless he is acquainted with the principles of the government that is to be administered. The general propositions of natural and moral philosophy are of importance to every citizen in his daily intercourse with his fellow men.

Anatomy taught by Analysis; a Lecture, introductory to the Course delivered in the Philadelphia Anatomical Rooms, Fifth Session, 1825-6. By JOHN D. GODMAN, M. D. Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 23.

Professional Reputation; an Oration, delivered before the Philadelphia Medical Society, pursuant to appointment, February 8, 1826. By JOHN D. GODMAN, M. D. Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 24.

THESE performances both bear ample testimony, not only to the scientific zeal and honest ambition of their author, but to the proper views and honourable spirit with which he is pursuing his professional career. Lectures upon anatomy, according to his method, although not probably capable of being made a substitute for the public course usually delivered at medical institutions, might very advantageously be attended by students, in connexion with such a course, and at the same time. It would be a decisive benefit to every institution of this sort, were such lectures accessible to its attendants.

In the Oration on Professional Reputation, Dr Godman points out the principles which should guide, and the motives which should influence the medical man in his professional life, particularly on his entrance upon it. We take it, the orator is describing the course which he has laid out in his own case, and the principles and motives by which he wishes to be governed. We can only say, that they are such as do him credit, and that no student, who will follow his advice, can ever have cause to repent his choice of a director.

INTELLIGENCE.

Gymnastic Exercises in Harvard University. The introduction of gymnastic exercises at the University at Cambridge, has taken place, through the gratuitous exertions of two of the gentlemen connected with the institution.* Their conviction of the great benefits to be derived from these exercises, induced them to request permission to make the experiment with a few of the students; and for that purpose the use of one of the unoccupied halls was granted them, in which a few machines were erected. So successful was the undertaking, and all the students became so desirous of engaging in these exercises, that it was soon found necessary to increase the number of machines, and to have them placed in the open air; and to make such arrangements as should enable all to participate, and at the same time insure a systematic course of instruction. The plan adopted has been attended with the most satisfactory results, and is as follows.

Each class was authorized to choose four of its members to act as monitors; thus a class of sixteen was formed, to which theoretical and practical instruction is given every evening during the hour immediately after prayers, and the monitors are in this way prepared to instruct their classmates.

The monitors having been so far instructed in the preliminary exercises as to be able to assist in the general instruction, the classes were divided each into four sections, and a monitor assigned to each section. The hour immediately preceding dinner was appropriated to the instruction and exercise of all the students, which is done in the following manner.

At the hour appointed, each class forms in line, and the monitors take their stations in front of their sections; the monitors are then desired to perform one set of exercises, which the sections imitate, the instructers pointing out wherein the exercise is incorrect, and aiding by their advice and example.

The exercises of one kind having been continued a sufficient length of time, the word is given to change, and the sections or classes are distributed to the different machines, care being taken that no one continues to exercise any particular set of muscles beyond ten or fifteen minutes, when the word is again given to change, and those who were exercising the muscles of the upper extremities change places with those who had been exercising the muscles of the lower extremities, and so on. In this way all the muscles are brought into action, and developed. The exercises close with trotting and running in line, at first for fifteen or twenty minutes; the time being gradually lengthened as the power of continuing this exercise increases from day to day, attention being paid to the state of respiration, &c.

Although the system has been in operation but a few weeks, many of the students have derived great benefit from it; some, whose health had been impaired, have experienced much relief, while others express a sense of great increase of bodily strength, and a corresponding ability for mental exertion.

* Dr Follen and Dr Webster.

The machines which have been constructed, are the parallel bars, upon which a great variety of exercises are performed, most of which are preparatory to the more difficult exercises; jumping stands, poles, &c.; vaulting bars, balancing bars, climbing stands, poles, and ropes; machines for strengthening the muscles of the arms and legs; for acquiring the power of supporting the weight of the body in various positions, &c.

A dynamometer has been constructed, by which the strength of every part of the body can be ascertained, and its increase. The strength of each student is determined at stated periods, and recorded by the monitors in books kept for that purpose, by a reference to which the gradual augmentation of physical power is satisfactorily shown, and an inducement offered for the continuance of these exercises.

The monitors are instructed every evening, and thus kept in advance of their sections.

Poetry of Mrs Hemans. "The League of the Alps" and other poems by Mrs Felicia Hemans, are preparing for publication, under the superintendence of Professor Norton of Cambridge. We cannot recommend this work better than by the following extract from the Prospectus:

"Mrs Hemans is eminently a female writer. In becoming an authoress she has not sacrificed, in any degree, that claim to deference, to which her sex is entitled. On the contrary, she gives to her poetry the charm of female loveliness. It is such as could be written only by a woman of a highly cultivated mind. On the descendants of "the Pilgrims,"—and where in this country are the descendants of the Pilgrims not to be found?—she has a peculiar claim of gratitude, from the noble verses which she has consecrated to their memory.

"The editor of this publication has gladly undertaken it, from a wish to put into the hands of a greater number of readers, poetry so beautiful, and so adapted to excite high moral sentiment. He has however a further object,—a desire to transmit to the authoress some expression of the respect and admiration in which she is held in this country. He has therefore proposed to publish the work by subscription. The whole profit will be transmitted to her."

Statistics of South Corolina. Robert Mills, Esq. of South Carolina, has prepared for the press a work, entitled "Statistics of the State of South Carolina, including a View of its Natural, Physical, Civil, and Military History, general and particular." The work is to be published in the autumn, and is intended to serve as an appendix to Mills's *Atlas of the State.*

Bishop Hobart's Discourse. John Miller, we perceive, has in press, in London, the Discourse delivered in Trinity Church, New York, October, 1825, by Bishop Hobart, on "The United States of America, compared with some European countries, particularly England."

Slavery in Great Britain. There have lately been meetings in different places in Great Britain, to petition parliament for the gradual abolition of slavery. All Christian people and governments seem bound to keep this object constantly in view.

The Emperor Nicholas. There is much speculation among the politicians of Europe, as to the course which the emperor Nicholas will probably pursue, especially towards Greece. He is not very ambitious, nor much of a military character. He will probably follow the policy of his late brother Alexander; and will be advised by his ministers.

Vesuvius. A fresco painting lately discovered at Pompeii, represents Vesuvius in a state of eruption. It would seem from this painting, that the mountain was formerly higher than at present.

Columbus. There is now printing at Madrid, the "Voyage of C. Columbus," from his own papers, by Bishop Las Casas; and W. Irving is said to be preparing a translation, following *pari passu* the original work.

Manuscripts relating to South America. It is supposed that there are several valuable manuscrips in libraries in Spain, relating to Mexico and South America, never yet published. They would probably afford useful information respecting the condition of Mexico when first visited by the Spaniards in 1520.

New Play. Mr Payne, a native of Boston, has lately written a new Play, called "The French Libertine." The British critics are severe in their remarks upon it.

British Works in Press. The following works were announced as in the press in England, on the first of March. "Historical Discourses in the Book of Genesis," by the Rev. F. Close. "Civil and Ecclesiastical History of Ireland." "New Theory of the Earth." "Biblical Researches, and Travels in Russia, Tour in the Crimea, and the Passage of the Caucasus, State of Jews in these places, and also of Mahometans and Pagans," by the Rev. Dr Henderson. The writer of this volume is a learned and judicious man, and the work is said to be interesting. "Brambletye House, or Cavaliers and Roundheads, a Historical Novel, referring to the time of Cromwell and Charles II." by the Author of "Rejected Addresses."

The dispute between Mr Roscoe and the Rev. Mr Bowles continues, respecting the merits of Pope, as a poet. The latter has recently published a reply to Mr Roscoe.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

EDUCATION.

Reflections on the proposed plan for establishing a College in Philadelphia, in which English Literature, the Sciences, and the Liberal Arts shall be taught; and for admission into which, no Prerequisite of having learned the Latin and Greek shall be necessary. By M. Carey. Second edition, improved. Philadelphia. H. C. Carey & I. Lea. 1826. 8vo. pp. 22.

A plan has been suggested for establishing in Philadelphia a Seminary, in which it is proposed to teach, "Grammar and Belles Lettres—Arithmetic—Mathematics—Geography—History—Chronology—Natural Philosophy, including Mechanics and Astronomy—Chemistry, and Mineralogy. The principles of Perspective—Mechanical and Architectural Drawing; also the French and Spanish and German Languages." The projectors of the institution at first proposed to exclude the "dead languages;" but afterwards, in order to "obviate objections," they so modified their plan as to suffer them to be taught to those who might wish to acquire them. At a meeting of citizens, called for the purpose, the plan, an outline of which is given above, was adopted, and a board of trustees were chosen, to appoint professors and establish the regulations of the institution. The project has, however, met with some opposition

from the friends and advocates of "classical learning," as containing a reflection upon its value in a course of disciplinary education. We think the friends of the proposed institution have made rather an unfortunate misnomer in calling it a "college;" and thereby have excited a prejudice against the plan, which would not otherwise have arisen. It must be remembered, that the advocates of classical learning, we mean both those who contend for it as an acquisition, and those who support its claims on the safer ground of utility as a wholesome discipline to the expanding mind, have generally received their education in the colleges, where a large proportion of time is devoted to that subject. And they can no more conceive of a *college* without "Latin and Greek," than a world without a sun. Without entering at all upon the comparative value of the "dead languages," and the branches proposed to be taught in this institution, as parts of a course of education, we believe no one would have thought of opposing a High School, devoted exclusively to the sciences, modern languages, and the practical arts, especially when there are so many institutions, both private and public, devoted almost exclusively to the ancient languages. And if the institution about to be established at Philadelphia, had been called by any name by which similar institutions in other parts of the country are designated, as a High School, or an Institute, or a Lyceum, or any thing but a College, we are persuaded, that it would not have suffered persecution; and certainly it could not have been hailed with such enthusiasm by its friends as a modern invention, which is "to spread like wild-fire" through every part of the Union.

An Oration, delivered at the dedication of Thaxter's Academy, in Edgartown, Martha's Vineyard, November 29th, 1825. Also, a Hymn, composed for the occasion. By Leavitt Thaxter. New Bedford. 8vo. pp. 11.

The subject of this Oration, is, of course, the importance of education. Without containing any very new or original ideas, it may have been useful in exciting interest in the subject; and particularly in drawing attention to the new Academy at Edgartown. The following is the concluding and best paragraph in the pamphlet:

"Though labouring under many disadvantages from our isolated situation; yet we have wealth, mental, intellectual wealth, which is not surpassed by any town in the Union. And shall we permit this invaluable gift of Heaven, this richest gem, to lie unwrought and unpolished, as *mere* stepping-stones on which others may climb to affluence and to honour? No, my friends; let us diligently and faithfully improve the talents committed to our trust. To this end, let us promote the diffusion of Knowledge, Wisdom, and Virtue, by giving to our Youth such an education as will qualify them for honour and usefulness in whatever station they may be called to act; then shall "our sons be as plants grown up in their youth, and our daughters as corner-stones polished after the similitude of a palace;" then shall our memories be embalmed with the blessings of posterity, when our bodies shall have mouldered in the silent grave.

Eighth Annual Report of the Controllers of the Public Schools of the First School District of the State of Pennsylvania; with their Accounts. Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 15.

We wish it were more common to put such interesting and valuable public documents as this in a pamphlet form, for preservation. We shall take occasion soon to notice it, as its merits and importance deserve, in connexion with the general provisions for public instruction in the State of Pensylvania.

GEOGRAPHY.

A Geographical Description of the United States, with the contiguous Countries, including Mexico and the West Indies; intended as an accompaniment to Melish's Map of these Countries. By John Melish. A new edition, greatly improved. New York. A. T. Goodrich.

HISTORY.

History of the War of the Independence of the United States of America. By Charles Botta. Translated from the Italian, by George

Alexander Otis, Esq. Second edition, in two volumes, revised and corrected. Boston. Harrison Gray. 1826. 8vo.

History of the Bunker Hill Battle, with a Plan. By S. Swett. Second edition, much enlarged, with New Information derived from the surviving Soldiers present at the Celebration on the 17th of June last, and Notes. Boston. 1826. pp. 88.

LAW.

An Essay on Equity in Pennsylvania. By Anthony Laussat, Jr. Student of Law, Member of the Law Academy of Philadelphia. Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 157.

We shall take an early opportunity to notice this elaborate essay, when we have gained time to read it with the attention, which its nature and the importance of the subject demand.

MEDICINE.

Observations on the Medical Character, addressed to the Graduates of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, of New York, at the Commencement held on the 4th of April, 1826. By David Hosack, M. D. New York. 1826. 8vo. pp. 24.

Anatomy taught by Analysis; a Lecture introductory to the Course delivered in the Philadelphia Anatomical Rooms, Fifth Session 1825-6. By John D. Godman, M. D. Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 23.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Refutation of certain Misrepresentations issued against the Author of the "Fauna Americana," in the Philadelphia Franklin Journal, No. I., 1826, and in the North American Review, No. L. Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 42.

It is always a bad omen for science, when its votaries are found engaged in personal squabbles with one another, and are willing to sacrifice its interests to the views of their own petty ambition. Dr Harlan, it seems, has put forth a book, of which one critic says that it is bad, and another that it is stolen. The expression of which opinions throws Dr Harlan into such tremendous wrath, that we cannot help fearing that it is both; for it is an old remark, that when a man finds himself in the wrong, he falls into a passion. Dr Harlan's refutation is angry and violent in the extreme, and we can hardly believe, that a man who feels himself in the right, would find it necessary to descend to vilifying and calling names. Dr Godman, in his letter to Dr Jones, the title of which is quoted below, sufficiently establishes the points he made in his first paper.

A Letter to Dr Thomas P. Jones, Editor of the Franklin Journal. By John D. Godman, M. D. Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 28.

Biographical Sketches, and Interesting Anecdotes, of Persons of Colour; to which is added, a Selection of Pieces in Poetry. Compiled by Abigail Mott. New York. M. Day.

The Virginia Housewife. Second edition. With Amendments and Additions.

THEOLOGY.

The Doctrines of the Church, vindicated from the Misrepresentations of Dr John Rice; and the Integrity of Revealed Religion defended against the "No Comment Principle" of promiscuous Bible Societies. By the Right Reverend John S. Ravenscraft, D. D. Bishop of the Diocess of North Carolina. Washington. P. Thompson. 8vo.

A Discourse on the Official Relations of New Testament Elders. By the Rev. John M. Duncan. Baltimore. 8vo.

Hints on Extemporaneous Preaching. By Henry Ware, Jr. Second edition. Boston. 1826. 18mo. pp. 93.

A Sermon, preached at Danvers, January 23, 1826, at the Interment of the Rev. Benjamin Wadsworth, D. D. By Samuel Dana, Pastor of the First Church in Marblehead. Salem. 1826. 8vo. pp. 24.

A Sermon, preached at a meeting of the Seamen's Union Bethel Society. By the Rev. J. P. K. Henshaw, Pastor of St. Peter's Church.

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

Letters to a Friend, on the Evidences, Doctrines, and Duties of the Christian Religion. By Olinthus Gregory, LL. D. First American, from the fourth London edition. 2 vols. New York. G. & C. Carvill. 1826. 12mo.

The author, in his Preface, says, "I have attempted to exhibit in small compass, a view, not merely of the evidences, but of the distinguishing doctrines and principal binding duties of the Christian Religion." Again; "I have entered pretty much at large into the establishment and defence of the leading doctrines which distinguish Christianity from all other religious systems. In the choice of these, I have kept almost entirely out of sight the higher points which separate the Arminians from the Calvinists; while I have attempted to illustrate and confirm, as essential, those grand doctrines, in which both Arminians and Calvinists, and, indeed, the great majority of Christians differ from the Socinians." The first volume, which relates to the evidences of Christianity, and that part of both which relates to Christian duties, we believe, will be universally acceptable; but the part which relates to what the author esteems "distinguishing doctrines" and "fundamentals" in religion, is controversial ground, from which we desire to escape with all possible despatch.

The French Phrase Book, or Key to French Conversation; containing the chief Idioms of the French Language. By M. l'Abbé Bossut. Boston. Cummings, Hilliard, & Co. 1826. 18mo. pp. 96.

The design of this little book will be best learned from the following short extract from a notice prefixed to the London edition: "By learning these familiar and idiomatic phrases, the young English scholar will acquire the French language and idiom exactly in the same manner as it is acquired by a native,—by practice and example, and not by rule. Rules are not to be despised; but they are rather adapted to perfect than to initiate."

The Spirit of Prayer. By Hannah More. Selected and compiled by Herself, from various portions, exclusively on that subject, in her published volumes. Boston. 1826. 12mo. pp. 171.

To those acquainted with the writings of Hannah More, this volume will need no other notice, than the knowledge of the subject, and the author's name contained in the title-page.

Memoirs of the Life of the Right Hon. Richard Brinsley Sheridan. By Thomas Moore. 2 vols. Philadelphia. 1826. 12mo.

Mornings at Bow Street; a Selection of the most humorous and entertaining Reports, which have appeared in the London Morning Herald. By J. Wright, Reporter to the Morning Herald. With Illustrations, by George Cruikshank. New York.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the United States Literary Gazette, No. 74, Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

THE UNITED STATES

LITERARY GAZETTE.

VOL. IV. MAY 15, 1826. No. 4.

REVIEWS.

1. *An Act of the General Assembly of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, to provide more effectually for the Education of the Poor gratis, and for Laying the Foundation of a General System of Education throughout this Commonwealth. Passed March* 29, 1824. Harrisburg, 1824.
2. *Remarks on the School Law of the last Session of the Legislature, and Information concerning the Common Schools of Massachusetts, New York, South Carolina, &c. &c.* Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 38.
3. *Eighth Annual Report of the Controllers of the Public Schools of the First School District of the State of Pennsylvania; with their Accounts.* Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 15.

WE have selected the first of the above titles from a copy of the "Pamphlet Laws of Pennsylvania," merely as intimation to our readers of the main subject of the following article, and we have subjoined the titles of two pamphlets, partly for the same reason, and also because they contain many facts, very convenient for our present purpose. Drawing from these sources of information, and from various others now within our reach, we shall proceed to offer some account of what has been done at different periods by the constituted authorities of Pennsylvania towards making the education of youth a public concern.

That the founder and proprietary of Pennsylvania was not, as some seem to suppose, insensible to the advantages of general education, we may be satisfied by a recurrence to the preamble to his "Frame of Government," promulgated about the time of

his arrival with the colony. In this, he declares, that "that which makes a good constitution must keep it,—namely, men of wisdom and virtue,—qualities, that, because they descend not with worldly inheritance, must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education of youth." In the body of the "Frame," it was expressly provided, that "the governor and provincial council shall erect and order all public schools." With this injunction he very conscientiously complied, by incorporating, in 1697, a body politic, under the name of "the Overseers of the Schools,"—a body, composed, as might have been expected, principally of persons of his own religious persuasion, whose number was limited to fifteen, and whose authority extended to the various schools within the city and suburbs of Philadelphia,—and those were probably all, that, at so early a period, could be deemed worthy of the attention of the government. This corporation has, we believe, existed from the date abovementioned, under the original charter, with the same organization, and through a succession of persons of the same religious persuasion, to the present time. The overseers have, at this time, the superintendence of twelve or thirteen schools. Of these, the classical establishment in Fourth street has always been conspicuous for the merit of its teachers, and for diffusing among the society a liberal share of learning, of science, and of refinement.

The facts just stated go far to exonerate the benevolent "Miquon" and his followers from the charge of hostility to the cause of good learning. If any one still doubt, whether their discarding the notion, that great learning is essential to the success and usefulness of a religious teacher, do not amount to a renunciation of learning in general, let him examine the lists of distinguished members of the learned professions, literary and scientific societies, and institutions of education, within their "beautiful city;" or let him visit the private dwellings of the respectable "Friends" in any of the older counties of Pennsylvania, and examine their libraries.

If the character and views of the proprietary were truly represented in his "Frame of Government," above quoted, and if the same denomination of persons had continued to constitute a majority of the population, and of the councils of the state, the governor and provincial council might have been very proper depositories for the important trust of popular education. But what was a very discreet arrangement, while the enlightened Penn himself filled the office of chief magistrate, proved to be a very inauspicious one, under many of his successors. Such

men as John Evans, Charles Gookin, and George Thomas, who, in the capacity of lieutenant-governors, represented, at different times, the principal proprietaries of Pennsylvania, found too much of their time occupied in managing their contests with the provincial assembly, and in proving their loyalty by opposing public sentiment, to allow any great share of attention to be bestowed upon the true interests of the people. Education, therefore, among many other primary concerns of a free government, seems to have been without a guardian, except within the limited jurisdiction of the corporation before mentioned. The records of legislative proceedings, during the long period from the settlement of the province to the revolution, will be searched in vain, for any evidence or even a disposition to legislate, directly, upon the subject. By a diligent examination of those documents, we have found but four acts, which even incidentally involve the subject. Two of these are private laws, granting to particular churches, the right of raising by lottery, small sums of money, to be employed in building school-houses. The others, which were passed in 1712 and in 1730 respectively, provide that "all religious societies of protestants, within the province, shall be allowed to purchase lands and tenements for burying grounds, and for erecting houses of religious worship, *schools*, and hospitals." Slight as the influence of these laws, which seem to tolerate, rather than encourage education, must have been upon the progress of intelligence; yet we apprehend, they have tended, in no small degree, to prevent the establishment of a more general system of education throughout the State. For, besides the particular schools attached to many of the separate societies, several denominations have larger establishments, to which youth of the same sect resort for instruction. As examples of the latter kind, we may mention the Friends' School at Weston, and the Academy of the Episcopal Church in Philadelphia. These partial sectarian establishments satisfy the demands of a portion of the community, and render them indifferent or averse to a system founded on an equal distribution of the benefits and expenses of education.

But in addition to the injudicious assignment of the superintendence of public schools exclusively to the governor and council, and the subsequent practice of religious societies in confining their exertions for education to youth of their own persuasion, it may be suggested, that the constant influx of foreigners, differing widely from each other in language, habits, manners, and, above all, in their ideas respecting the importance of education, must

have opposed no slight obstacle to any general, concerted efforts for the diffusion of intellectual light, and of the consequent habits of chastened social order. Thus the revolution found Pennsylvania, as it found many other states in the confederacy, destitute of any general system of instruction, and with no small portion of her population in the most abject state of ignorance. We speak now with reference to that part of her population, which it behoves every wise legislature to furnish with means and inducements for improvement,—the yeomanry, and all the middling and poorer classes, both in town and country. An institution had been founded by private subscription in 1749, and chartered and moderately endowed by the proprietaries in 1755, under the name of the "College, Academy, and Charitable School of Philadelphia." But an institution of this kind could do little towards supplying the deficiency of common schools.

The first constitution of the State was adopted about three months after the declaration of independence, a period of alarm and peril, in which, it should seem, that self-preservation must have absorbed all other concerns; yet the convention which formed it, contained among its members such men as Benjamin Franklin and David Rittenhouse, and could, therefore, hardly fail of having its attention directed to the important subject of legal provision for public instruction. Accordingly, we find in the "plan or frame of government," then adopted, an article, requiring that "a school, or schools, shall be established in each county by the legislature, for the convenient instruction of youth, with such salaries to the masters, paid by the public, as may enable them to instruct youth at low prices;" and further, "that all useful learning shall be duly encouraged and promoted in one or more universities." The latter of these injunctions was first obeyed. In 1779, the legislature passed a law to confirm the estates and interests of the College, Academy, and Charitable School of Philadelphia, and to amend and alter the charter conformable to the revolution, and to the constitution and government of the State. In the year following it was erected into an university. These proceedings were in consequence of a recommendation from the executive council, who asserted, that a general neglect of the great duty of education was observed both in town and country, while the growing attention of other states invited the youth from Pennsylvania, and produced effects "equally repugnant to public benefit and private convenience." The alteration of the charter of the college, in opposition to the wishes, and in defiance of the remonstrances of the trustees and

governors of the institution, was not a very auspicious commencement of legislative patronage. But it arose from a belief, that an undue pre-eminence was given to some religious societies, to the prejudice of others, and from a requisition in the original charter, which allied it too closely to the government of Britain, by making the allegiance of its governors to that state, a prerequisite to any official act. The effect of a narrow, exclusive spirit, which would confine the advantages of a seat of learning to particular sects, seems to have been viewed in a just light by the council, and was deprecated in language, which we think cannot be too often repeated at the present day: "For us, it is sufficient to observe, that, as learning or science are of no party or sect, we wish to see them promoted on the most liberal principles, giving to every denomination equal rights and privileges." We refer to these proceedings in relation to the University of Pennsylvania, as furnishing a precedent, by which the legislature appears to have been guided, in the acts of incorporation of many of the seminaries established at later periods. For they have guarded them against the evil in question, by providing in the charters, that no peculiar religious opinions shall operate to exclude any individual, either as trustee, instructer, or student, from the benefits of the respective institutions.

From the period of which we have been speaking, to the adoption of the present constitution in 1790,—little more than ten years,—two new colleges and six academies were founded. For the incorporating, altering, or aiding of these, including what was done for the university, no less than twenty different laws were enacted. One feeble effort only seems to have been made during the same period, to comply with the first injunction of the constitution above cited. In 1786, a grant of ten thousand acres of land was made to Dickinson College, and the same act which conferred the donation, set apart sixty thousand acres to be appropriated to the purpose of supporting schools throughout the state. Whether this land has ever been surveyed and "located," or not, we are unable say, as we have observed no reference to it, in any of the numerous laws passed since that time. One thing, however, is certain,—that the cause of general education, in common schools, has never been in the least promoted by the appropriation.

But though all the patronage of the State was bestowed upon collegiate institutions and academies, an attempt was made to prevent them from becoming nurseries of aristocracy, by making the boards of trustees so numerous, as to constitute a kind of

popular assemblies. Thus, the Episcopal Academy was furnished with a board of sixteen members; Germantown and Washington each with twenty-one; the University with twenty-five; Reading Academy with twenty-nine; Dickinson College with forty-one; and Franklin College with forty-five! Most of the members of these multitudinous boards of trustees were, of necessity, persons who had little or no experience in the concerns of seminaries of learning. Their notions were, of course, crude, visionary; and often contradictory, so that if they did not effectually prevent, they certainly did not promote the success of the institutions committed to their charge. Where responsibility is much divided, duty is often wholly neglected. In short, had the legislature been determined to thwart the purposes, retard the progress, and ruin the prospects of these institutions, we can conceive of no expedient more happy for accomplishing their design.

In the convention which amended the constitution in 1790, the clause respecting education, was, at the suggestion of Timothy Pickering, who was a member of that body, altered, with a view to insure the extension of the blessings of knowledge to every member of the community. It requires that "the legislature shall, as soon as conveniently may be, provide by law for the establishment of schools throughout the State, in such a manner that the poor may be taught gratis;" and that "the arts and sciences shall be promoted in one or more seminaries of learning." This clause, we are confident, was never intended to be made the foundation of laws for the education of the poor *as a distinct class*, and least of all did it look to their being taught in separate establishments. It doubtless contemplated that system of "schools throughout the state," with which Colonel Pickering had been familiar from his youth, and which, for a century before he was born, had been spreading its benign influence over the social condition of New England.

But though this was obviously the intention of the authors of the clause, it has received, until very lately, an entirely different interpretation at Harrisburg. Nothing was done in obedience to this article of the constitution, so far as it relates to common schools, until 1809, when an act was passed "for the education of the poor gratis." It required a report to be made by the assessors of the townships, wards, and boroughs, to the commissioners of the respective counties, of all children within certain ages, whose parents were unable to provide for their education. When the lists were approved by the commissioners, it was notified to the

parents of such children, that they might send them to "the most convenient school," and the expense of their tuition was defrayed out of the county treasury. The defects of this law were so numerous, and opened so wide a door for deception and cupidity, that a modification, so far as it applied to the cities, became indispensable. This will appear evident, when it is recollected, that for the tuition of only one thousand eight hundred and twenty-eight poor children, for about eight months, in the year 1811, the city and county of Philadelphia paid no less than twelve thousand one hundred and twenty-four dollars. Extravagant as this sum may appear, it would not have been so enormous, had the youth, on whose account it was paid, been faithfully, or even tolerably instructed. But in that, as well as in other parts of the State, there was often a gross neglect of duty on the part of instructers, towards the poor children entered on their lists, and a still greater indifference among parents, to the acceptance of this public dole of knowledge, thus ungraciously held out to their offspring.

From the adoption of the constitution to the passage of this *poor law*, the legislature had passed no less than thirty-five acts for the benefit of higher institutions. *One college* and *nine new academies* had been established, most of which were "endowed" with sums varying from five hundred to two thousand dollars each, and in return for this liberality, were required to educate each a certain number of poor children *gratis*.

The idea of making the boards of trustees popular assemblies, appears to have been abandoned, and more rational numbers assigned, than those which had been imposed upon the earlier corporations. Five, seven, or nine persons had, before 1811, begun to be considered fully competent to manage concerns, exactly similar to those, which, in 1785-6, had been cautiously committed to bands, whose ranks might have formed no indifferent military cordon, around their whole jurisdiction.

Other features were, however, introduced into the organization of these new establishments, no less detrimental to their success. The trustees were, in many instances, to be chosen by the electors of the county, and a certain proportion were to vacate their seats every year, to make room for new candidates. This practice, applied to literary institutions, is "rotation in office" with a vengeance. It is not wonderful, that men, who held their seats by so feeble a tenure, as that which kept popular favourites in place, during the political tornadoes fifteen years ago, should feel but little security in proposing measures for the welfare of

the institutions over which their precarious authority extended; still less could persons, disposed to encourage seats of learning by donations or otherwise, feel any confidence that their benefactions would be duly applied. Private patronage was accordingly withheld. Hence, most of these "endowed" establishments drooped in poverty and insignificance, and, instead of being able to afford gratuitous assistance to poor children, they soon became themselves the mendicant children of the parent state. By a reference to the journals of the assembly for the present year, it will be seen, that many of them still remain in the condition of sturdy petitioners, and that to some of the most inportunate, a scanty pittance is, from time to time, doled out by their constitutional guardians,—the representatives of one of the richest millions of freemen on the globe.

The burden imposed upon the city of Philadelphia by the law of 1809, led to an alteration in 1812, by which the county commisioners were required to fix upon, and agree with those teachers, to whom poor children within the city and its environs were to be committed. Still, large sums of money were expended, and but little knowledge diffused. In 1818, however, the city and county were erected into a district, called "the First School District of Pennsylvania." It is divided into eight sections, and its concerns committed to eighty-one directors, of whom those belonging to the city and liberties are appointed by the municipal authorities, and those appertaining to the country sections by the court of Quarter Sessions. These directors elect from among themselves a select body, called the controllers, whose number is to be one sixth of that of the directors themselves. The controllers have power to erect houses, provide books, and make rules for the government of the schools; and to establish a *model school* to qualify teachers for the other schools of the same class. They are required to publish annually a statement of their accounts, and of the number of children educated under their care.

One of the pamphlets, whose title stands at the head of this article, is the report of this body acting under the law of 1818. By that law, they are confined to the Lancasterian plan of instruction in all their establishments within the incorporated districts. Of these, they have nine under their charge, with an aggregate of three thousand five hundred and seven children, of both sexes, who, as we are informed by this report, are taught the alphabet, spelling, writing, reading, and arithmetic, and, in some of the other schools, grammar and geography. Needlework, platting of straw, and other branches of industry, form a part of the instruction of the girls.

As to the expense of this system, compared with that of the unsystematic management of 1809, the balance is greatly in favour of the present mode of educating the poor. The nine schools of mutual instruction, with their 3,507 scholars, cost, during the past year, only 11,500 dollars, whereas the same number of pupils in 1811, on the plan then in operation, would have cost no less than 34,900 dollars. In speaking of the effect of the present system, the controllers observe:

> The experience of each successive year confirms the opinion often proclaimed, concerning the utility of the Lancasterian method of instruction; and the controllers have only to lament that the number of pupils is not equal to the liberal opportunities furnished for their education.

If we mistake not, every report which the controllers have yet made, has contained some similar lamentation about the indifference of the poor, both parents and children, to these "liberal opportunities." We entertain the highest opinion of the public spirit and intelligence of Mr Vaux and the gentlemen associated with him in this work of benevolence; and as we are sure, that their sagacity must penetrate the true cause of this reluctance on the part of the *poor*, so we feel confident, that their candor and patriotism will ere long impel them to expose the evil, and suggest the remedy.

In 1822, the city and incorporated boroughs of Lancaster county, were erected into "the Second School District," with powers, privileges, and duties similar to those just described. Two or three other counties likewise obtained modifications of the law of 1809, so far as the same applied to themselves. But local and partial legislation could not satisfy the demand of the times. Ignorance still abounded. The march of improvement in other states was fast leaving Pennsylvania in the back ground as to every thing that commands respect in the intellectual character of a community. The richest and the poorest classes were in some sort provided for, but multitudes who could not be ranked among the former, and would not be placed in the latter denomination, were almost or altogether without the means of mental improvement. None of the effects of such a system as was contemplated by the constitution, were yet visible. It was perceived, that the plan of erecting separate schools for the poor, adopted in Philadelphia and Lancaster, might answer indifferently well, where the poor were numerous enough to form large classes, and keep each other in countenance, while they accepted the

public bounty; but that the same plan would not prosper in the country, where but few could be embodied, and those few preferred ignorance to the humiliation of being set apart and distinguished as a corps of paupers. Exertions were therefore made by those who saw the necessities of the State, to supply her deficiencies, by laying the foundation of such a system as should not only comply with the letter and spirit of the constitution, and with the practice of other states, but also in some degree with the demands of the age and of the national character. With these ends in view, the legislature, in 1824, passed the law, whose title we have placed first in the list, at the head of this article. It provided, that every township should elect three suitable persons, to be called "schoolmen," who should superintend the education of the poor children within their townships, and "cause them to be instructed and treated as other children are treated." This last injunction, we think, it must have puzzled even "the schoolmen," with all their ingenuity, to obey, so long as the *difference* of treatment was founded on a distinction created by public authority.

This law was applicable to the whole State, with the exception of the two school districts before named. The funds for defraying the expenses of educating the poor were still drawn from the county treasury, and paid under the authority of the schoolmen to the teachers whom they might approve, for instructing the indigent students. But when any township voted to accept the further provisions of this law, it authorized the schoolmen to fulfil the directions of those provisions; which were to divide the township into school districts, and to erect and establish schools at the public expense, to which all children belonging to the district might be sent for *three years*, at any time between the ages of six and fourteen. Under these provisions, also, the monies raised for the purposes of education, were assessed by the schoolmen, and applied under their sole direction; they examined the teachers, and had a general supervision and control over the schools in their respective townships and boroughs.

In speaking of this law, we use the past tense, for it is no longer in existence. While penning these remarks, we are informed, that the legislature at Harrisburg have, in their wisdom, unconditionally repealed the whole law.

> Thus that famed matron, wife t' Ulysses,
> Each night, each day's work picked in pieces.

We think the "glorious uncertainty of the law," was never more unfortunately exemplified. But the present legislature has

not acted without precedent. The University of Pennsylvania passed through the hands of their predecessors, first, from the state of a *royal*, to that of a *constitutional* college; next to an university; then back to its chrysalis state, of "College, Academy, and Charitable School;" and, finally, to the form of an university once more.

The exertions made in some of the counties to obtain the repeal of the law of 1824, gave rise to the publication of a series of essays in a weekly journal in favour of its continuance. These essays have since been collected into a pamphlet, whose title is among those which we have quoted above. It contains some very just and original remarks, and cogent reasonings in favour of common schools. But it is principally occupied with the details of a report, made some time ago, to the legislature of Kentucky, by commissioners appointed for that purpose. The author labours, by his quotations and reflections, to establish two points, which, we think, require no proof.

First—That the education of the labouring class is in the highest degree desirable.

Secondly—That for the promotion and attainment of this important object, the system of common schools for the gratuitous instruction of all classes, is the cheapest, the most efficient, the least objectionable, and the most congenial to our free institutions.

So far, however, are these self-evident truths from being received in Pennsylvania, that she has just destroyed the only practical acknowledgment which she has ever made of their justness and utility. The lately abolished law repealed that of 1809, and, as no provision for its revival is contained in the act just passed, we do not perceive, that even the poorest of the poor have now any legal provision for instruction. The colleges* and academies are, however, daily multiplying; and these, so far as they produce any visible effect, are only increasing the distance between the different ranks of society,—a distance, which, if we understand their character, Pennsylvanians ought to be the last to approve. Since 1809, the number of academies has been in-

* The dates of incorporation of the several colleges and universities are as follows: The University of Pennsylvania, first chartered in 1753—erected into a university, March 16, 1780; Dickinson College at Carlisle, incorporated September 9, 1783; Franklin College at Lancaster, March 10, 1787; Washington College at Washington, 1787; Jefferson College at Canonsburg, January 15, 1802; Alleghany College at Meadville, March 25, 1817; Western University at Alleghany near Pittsburgh, February 18, 1819; Lafayette Military College at Easton, March, 1826. This last institution embraces, among other objects, instruction in military tactics and civil engineering.

creased from fifteen to *fifty*,—of the colleges, from three to *five*, and a second university has been added. The number of laws passed since the revolution, in relation to education,—including those which have made and unmade systems, which have aided or encumbered seminaries, and which have created or annihilated "bodies corporate forever,"—is no less than *one hundred and fifty-four*. Now supposing, what seems to us a very moderate calculation, that each law occupied in its various stages one entire day of the time of both houses, and that the number and pay of members were the same as at present; then the enactment of these laws alone, without taking into the account the sums voted away by them, must have cost the state more than *sixty thousand dollars*. The whole amount of appropriations for education in colleges and academies, since the foundation of the government, is about 150,000 dollars. And yet, if we except the medical department of the University (which, in truth, has no connexion with general education), there is not a seminary in the State, to be compared to even the second rate institutions in other parts of the Union. Had one tenth part of the money which has passed into the pockets of legislators for making partial, local, inefficient enactments, been expended forty years ago in maturing a well digested system of common schools and higher institutions, Pennsylvania might have spared herself the disgrace of containing many thousands of persons, who are annually called upon to exercise the rights of citizens, in voting by ballot, who can neither write a ballot, read it when written, nor even read their own names, whether written or printed. These are considerations which belong, it is true, principally to our brethren of Pennsylvania; yet, as Americans, we cannot but feel a portion of that reproach, which so glaring a neglect of the duties of freemen must cast upon every member of the republic. We confess, that to us, there seems so manifest a disproportion between the immense resources of Pennsylvania, and the trifling extent to which they are employed for developing the intellectual character of her citizens, that we cannot but regard the neglect of this subject, as a signal contempt of the bounties of nature and of Providence.

We cannot more appropriately close these remarks, than in the language of the pamphlet last cited.

The greater conformity to republican principles and institutions in the system [of common schools] now advocated, has been frequently referred to, in its happy effects upon all classes; especially in rescuing those particularly to be benefited, from the degradation

of being considered and treated as an inferior class. It cannot fail to strike the observant and intelligent statesman, that one of the pleasing results of the system would be to place all classes more upon the desirable footing of greater equality, and to diminish the combination of rudeness, servility, and insolence, sometimes observed in the poorer classes, whilst it would equally tend to check the pride, the arrogance, and the assumption of superiority too often found in union with wealth. There cannot be conceived a more efficient mode of equalizing the gifts of fortune, than that of improving the minds of the less fortunate; nor one better calculated to compensate for the inequalities, which, under the most equal system of laws, will, in consequence of a variety of circumstances, be found to prevail.

Recollections of the Last Ten Years, passed in occasional Residences and Journeyings in the Valley of the Mississippi, from Pittsburg and the Missouri to the Gulf of Mexico, and from Florida to the Spanish Frontier; in a Series of Letters to the Rev. James Flint, of Salem, Massachusetts. By Timothy Flint, Principal of the Seminary of Rapide, Louisiana. Boston. 8vo. pp. 395.

The author of this work is a very different person from the ignorant and conceited tourists, who have occasionally favoured the public with their observations in the Valley of the Mississippi. We have had enough of the sayings and doings of these trimmings of civilized society, who, though well enough in their place, are nothing out of it; and we are glad to see, at last, an account of this interesting country from a person, whom good sense, education, and experience have rendered worthy of confidence.

The author of the work before us is a clergyman, who, ten years since, left New England for the western country, in search of health, and some other blessings, which circumstances had deprived him of at home. He was accompanied by his family, and, as it appears from his book, has not escaped the usual fortune of emigrants to newly settled and strange countries. He appears to have found that sickness and sorrow cannot always be left behind, or sold off with other household matters, that they follow a man, and abide with him, and are as familiar to the fertile prairie of the West, as to the rocky hills of the North and East. With the domestic calamities of the writer, however, we

have at present nothing to do, but to hope, that they are not likely to be repeated. We intend only to consider his book as presenting views of regions, concerning which our knowledge is comparatively limited. We have good reason to believe, that they are accurate, and they are certainly highly interesting.

The nature and extent of this work, would render it difficult for us, even if it were very desirable, to give a complete analysis of it. We shall not attempt this, but content ourselves with offering such specimens of it, as we hope will interest our readers, and perhaps induce many to read the whole. This is a result, which we should consider valuable; for it is the duty, as it ought to be the pleasure of every individual among us, to acquire, as far as possible, an accurate knowledge of the situation, circumstances, wants, habits, and feelings of his countrymen in every part of the Union. The various circumstances of the immense territory over which our republic is spreading her citizens, powerfully tend to divisions of feeling, local prejudices, and sectional animosities. We should endeavour to counteract this tendency, and labour to know each other better and value each other more; be ready to believe that the good and evil, whether of local or moral circumstances, are more nearly balanced than may at first sight be apparent; and remember, that, while our jest is of "Yankees" and "Kentucks," "Atlantic states men" and "backwoodsmen," our earnest should always be of North Americans.

We shall make our first extract from the author's account of his descent of the Ohio river.

The first thing that strikes a stranger from the Atlantic, arrived at the boat-landing [at Pittsburg], is the singular, whimsical, and amusing spectacle, of the varieties of water-craft, of all shapes and structures. There is the stately barge, of the size of a large Atlantic schooner, with its raised and outlandish looking deck. This kind of craft, however, which required twenty-five hands to work it up stream, is almost gone into disuse, and though so common ten years ago, is now scarcely seen. Next there is the keel-boat, of a long, slender, and elegant form, and generally carrying from fifteen to thirty tons. This boat is formed to be easily propelled over shallow waters in the summer season, and in low stages of the water is still much used, and runs on waters not yet frequented by steam-boats. Next in order are the Kentucky flats, or in the vernacular phrase, "broad-horns," a species of ark, very nearly resembling a New England pig-stye. They are fifteen feet wide, and from forty to one hundred feet in length, and carry from twenty to seventy tons. Some of them, that are called family-boats, and used by families in descending the river, are very large

and roomy, and have comfortable and separate apartments, fitted up with chairs, beds, tables, and stoves. It is no uncommon spectacle to see a large family, old and young, servants, cattle, hogs, horses, sheep, fowls, and animals of all kinds, bringing to recollection the cargo of the ancient ark, all embarked, and floating down on the same bottom. Then there are what the people call "covered sleds," or ferry-flats, and Allegany-skiffs, carrying from eight to twelve tons. In another place are pirogues of from two to four tons burthen, hollowed sometimes from one prodigious tree, or from the trunks of two trees united, and a plank rim fitted to the upper part. There are common skiffs, and other small craft, named, from the manner of making them, "dug-outs," and canoes hollowed from smaller trees. These boats are in great numbers, and these names are specific, and clearly define the boats to which they belong. But besides these, in this land of freedom and invention, with a little aid, perhaps, from the influence of the moon, there are monstrous anomalies, reducible to no specific class of boats, and only illustrating the whimsical archetypes of things that have previously existed in the brain of inventive men, who reject the slavery of being obliged to build in any received form. You can scarcely imagine an abstract form in which a boat can be built, that in some part of the Ohio or Mississippi you will not see, actually in motion. The New York canal is beginning, indeed, to bring samples of this infinite variety of water-craft nearer to the inspection of the Atlantic people.

This variety of boats, so singular in form, and most of them apparently so frail, is destined in many instances to voyages of from twelve hundred to three thousand miles. Keel-boats, built at this place, start on hunting expeditions for points on the Missouri, Arkansas, and Red River, at such distances from Pittsburg as these. Such are the inland voyages on these long streams, and the terms of the navigation are as novel as are the forms of the boats. You hear of the danger of "riffles," meaning probably, ripples, and planters, and sawyers, and points, and bends, and shoots, a corruption, I suppose, of the French "chûte." You hear the boatmen extolling their prowess in pushing a pole, and you learn the received opinion, that a "Kentuck" is the best man at a pole, and a Frenchman at the oar. A firm push of the iron-pointed pole on a fixed log, is termed a "reverend" set. You are told when you embark, to bring your "plunder" aboard, and you hear about moving "fernenst" the stream; and you gradually become acquainted with a copious vocabulary of this sort. The manners of the boatmen are as strange as their language. Their peculiar way of life has given origin not only to an appropriate dialect, but to new modes of enjoyment, riot, and fighting. Almost every boat, while it lies in the harbour, has one

or more fiddles scraping continually aboard, to which you often see the boatmen dancing. There is no wonder that the way of life which the boatmen lead, in turn extremely indolent, and extremely laborious; for days together requiring little or no effort, and attended with no danger, and then on a sudden, laborious and hazardous, beyond Alantic navigation; generally plentiful as it respects food, and always so as it regards whiskey, should always have seductions that prove irresistible to the young people that live near the banks of the river. The boats float by their dwellings on beautiful spring mornings, when the verdant forest, the mild and delicious temperature of the air, the delightful azure of the sky of this country, the fine bottom on the one hand, and the romantic bluff on the other, the broad and smooth stream rolling calmly down the forest, and floating the boat gently forward,—all these circumstances harmonize in the excited youthful imagination. The boatmen are dancing to the violin on the deck of their boat. They scatter their wit among the girls on the shore, who come down to the water's edge to see the pageant pass. The boat glides on until it disappears behind a point of wood. At this moment, perhaps, the bugle, with which all the boats are provided, strikes up its note in the distance over the water. These scenes, and these notes, echoing from the bluffs of the beautiful Ohio, have a charm for the imagination, which, although I have heard it a thousand times repeated, and at all hours, and in all positions, is even to me always new, and always delightful. No wonder that the young, who are reared in these remote regions, with that restless curiosity which is fostered by solitude and silence, who witness scenes like this so frequently, no wonder that the severe and unremitting labours of agriculture, performed directly in the view of such scenes, should become tasteless and irksome. No wonder that the young along the banks of the great streams, should detest the labours of the field, and embrace every opportunity, either openly, or if minors, covertly, to escape and devote themselves to the pernicious employment of boating. And in this view we may account for the detestation of the inhabitants along these great streams towards steam-boats, which are every day diminishing the number of small boats and boatmen, and which have already withdrawn from the western waters, probably ten thousand from that employment. And yet with all these seductions for the eye and the imagination, no life is so slavish, none so precarious and dangerous. In no employment do the hands so wear out. After the lapse of so very short a period since these waters have been navigated in this way, at every bend, and every high point of the river, you are almost sure to see, as you stop for a moment, indications of the "narrow house;" the rude monument, the coarse memorial, carved on an adjoining tree by a brother boatmen, which marks that an exhausted boatman there yielded his breath, and was buried.

The following is the only extract we can make from the author's remarks upon the State of Ohio.

This great State, which was, within my memory, an unbroken wilderness, is now at farthest, only the fourth state in the Union in point of numbers. There are not, probably, on the earth seven hundred thousand human beings, who in the mass are more comfortably fed and clothed, than the population of this State. I looked upon this fresh and flourishing city [Cincinnati], outstretched under my eye, and compared in thought its progress with that of the imperial Petersburg,—where a great and intelligent despot said, "Let there be a city," and a city arose upon a Golgotha, upon piles of human bones and skulls, that gave consistency to a morass. The awe of a numberless soldiery, the concentered resources of thirty millions of slaves, the will of the sovereign, who made the same use of men that the mason does of bricks and mortar, must all conspire to form a city in that place. Droves of peasants are transplanted from the extremities of Asia to people it. Imperial treasures are lavished to furnish inducements to entice the *noblesse* to build and reside there. A despotic court displays there Asiatic magnificence, and squanders the means of ministering to its caprices and its pleasures. The result of all these concurring causes is the erection of one splendid city in the midst of a desert; and more human beings, probably, perished in this unnatural forcing of a city, than inhabit it at this day.

How different are the fostering efforts of liberty. Sixteen hundred miles from the sea, in half an age, this flourishing and beautiful town has emerged from the woods, and when as old as Petersburg now is, will probably, in wealth and population, emulate the imperial city. No troops are stationed, no public money lavished here. It is not even the State metropolis. The people build and multiply imperceptibly and in silence. Nothing is forced. This magnificent result is only the developement of our free and noble institutions, upon a fertile soil. Nor is this place the solitary point, where the genius of our institutions is working this result. Numerous cities and towns, over an extent of two thousands of miles, are emulating the growth of this place. The banks of the Ohio are destined shortly to become almost a continued village. Eleven years have produced an astonishing change in this respect; for at that distance of time, by far the greater proportion of the course of the Ohio was through a forest. When you saw this city, apparently lifting its head from surrounding woods, you found yourself at a loss to imagine whence so many people could be furnished with supplies. In the fine weather, at the commencement of winter, it is only necessary to go to the market of this town, and see its exuberant supplies of every article for consumption, in the finest

order, and of the best quality; to see the lines of wagons and the astonishing quantities of every kind of produce, to realize, at once, all that you have read about the growth of Ohio.

The neighbouring State of Kentucky, it will be perceived, differs from that last described in many particulars.

Kentucky has a great many handsome villages. Every county in the fertile districts has at least one such. On the banks of the Ohio, which are exposed to fever and ague, the inhabitants have a pale and sallow cast of countenance. As soon as you depart from the Ohio, and find yourself in the region of hills and springs, you will nowhere see fairer and fresher complexions, or fuller and finer forms, than you see in the young men and women, who are generally exempted from the necessity of labour. They have a mild and temperate climate, a country producing the greatest abundance, and sufficiently old to have possessed itself of all the comforts of life. The people live easily and plentifully, and on the "finest of the wheat." The circumstances, under which they are born, tend to give them the most perfect developement of person and form. It struck me, that the young native Kentuckians were, in general, the largest race that I had seen. There was obvious, at once, a considerable difference of manners between the people of this and the opposite states, that do not possess slaves. The villages are full of people, that seem to have plenty of leisure. The bell of the court-house,—for their villages were generally destitute of a church,—would, on a half hour's previous notice, generally assemble a full audience, to what is here technically called "a preaching." It was easy to see, in the complexion, manner, and dress of the audience, a greater exemption from personal labour, than I had witnessed elsewhere. Striking marks of rustic opulence appear impressed upon every thing here. There is a great difference in the manners of the taverns here, from those of the Atlantic towns. The public houses assemble a great number of well dressed boarders, townsmen, and strangers. The meals are served up with no small degree of display and splendour. The lady hostess is conducted by some dandy to her chair, at the head of the table, which seems to be considered a post of no small honour, and which she fills with a suitable degree of dignity. * * *

The ease and opulence, that are so visible in the appearance of the people, are equally so in the houses, their appendages, and furniture. Travelling through the villages of this fertile region, where the roads are perfectly good, and where every elevation brings you in view of a noble farm-house, in the midst of its orchards, and sheltered by its fine groves of forest and sugar-maple trees, you would scarcely realize, that the first settlers of the country, and they men of mature age when they settled it,

were, some of them, still living. Every thing is young or old only by comparison. The inhabitants, who are more enthusiastic and national than the other western people, and look with a proud disdain upon the younger states, designate their own state, with the veneration due to age, by the name of "Old Kentucky." To them it is the home of all that is good, fertile, happy, and great. As the English are said to go to battle with a song extolling their roast beef, instead of saying their prayers, so the Kentuckian, when about to encounter danger, rushes upon it, crying, "Hurra for old Kentucky." Every one in the western country has heard the anecdote, that a Methodist preacher from this state, in another state, was preaching, and expatiating upon the happiness of heaven. Having gradually advanced towards the cap of his climax, "In short," said he, "my brethren, to say all in one word, heaven is a Kentuck of a place."

The following is from the account of the first entrance of the writer into the Mississippi.

Having turned the point, and made our boat fast to the young willows, we reposed to give scope to our own contemplations. Our hands demanded the usual compliment, and having received it in moderation, pronounced themselves sufficiently cheered to begin their task. The margin of the stream is marked with a beautiful growth of low willows and cotton-woods, and the river, though it had overflowed the banks, and was high among the trees, was, from twenty to thirty feet from the shore, not very swift. We began to pull the boat up the stream, by a process, which, in the technics of the boatmen, is called "bush-whacking." It consists, by commencing at the bow, to seize a handful of bushes, or a single branch, and to pull upon them and walk towards the stern, as the boat ascends. The crew follow each other in this way in succession to the stern, and walk round to the bow on the opposite side. The banks slope so rapidly, that the "setting pole" is not long enough, in the general way, for use on the opposite side, and they commonly put two hands to the oars. Whenever we come to a point, and have to encounter the full force of the current, we cross the river, in order to get into the easier current upon the opposite shore. We shall remark, elsewhere, upon the singular but almost uniform configuration of the western rivers, by which they are scooped out into points and bends. When the river is low, there is a sand-bar opposite the bend, and the current is invariably much stronger in the bend, than over the sand-bar.

We mark a very obvious difference between the aspect of the Ohio and the Mississippi. The breadth of the two rivers is nearly the same; and they present at their junction nearly the same appearances of swamp and inundation. They have much the same

growth on their banks; and yet they have a character very unlike each other. The Ohio is calm and placid, and except when full, its waters are limped to a degree. The face of the Mississippi is always turbid; the current every where sweeping and rapid; and it is full of singular *boils*, where the water, for a quarter of an acre, rises with a strong circular motion, and a kind of hissing noise, forming a convex mass of waters above the common level, which roll down and are incessantly renewed. The river seems always in wrath, tearing away the banks on one hand with gigantic fury, with all their woods, to deposit the spoils in another place.

To form any adequate ideas of our impressions of this new scene which I am attempting to record, you will naturally bear in remembrance what kind of family it was, that was viewing it. We were not accustomed to travelling. We had been reared in stillness and seclusion, where we had contemplated the world rather in books than in reality. The Misssissippi, too, at that time, was to the great proportion of the American people, as it was to us, the "ultima Thule,"—a limit almost to the range of thought. This stream, instead of being ploughed by a hundred steam-boats had seen but one. The astonishing facilities for travelling, by which it is almost changed to flying, had not been invented. The thousand travellers, for mere amusement, that we now see on the roads, canals, and rivers, were then travelling only in books. The stillness of the forest had not been broken by the shouting of turnpike-makers. The Mississippi forest had seldom resounded, except with the cry of wild beasts, the echo of thunder, or the crash of undermined trees, falling into the flood. Our admiration, our unsated curiosity at that time, would be matter of surprise at the present, to the thousands of hacknied travellers on this stream, to whom all this route, and all its circumstances, are as familiar as the path from the bed to the fire. * * *

No employment can be imagined more laborious, and few more dangerous, than this of propelling a boat against the current of such a river. It may not be amiss to record some of the circumstances of labour and peril; for the growing disuse of all other but steam-boats, will soon render these descriptions but little more than matter of past history. At one time you come to a place in the current, so swift that no force of oars and poles can urge the boat through it. You then have to apply, what is commonly called here a "cordelle," which is a long rope fastened at one end to the boat, thrown ashore, and seized by a sufficient number of hands to drag or track the boat up the stream. But, owing to the character of the river, and the numberless impediments in it and on its banks, this "cordelle" is continually entangling among the snags and sawyers, between the boat and the shore, and has often to be thrown over small trees, and carried round larger ones. Of

course it requires great experience and dexterity to be a good leader of a cordelle. The service is extremely well adapted to the French boatmen. Sometimes you are impeded by vast masses of trees, that have lodged against sawyers. At other times, you find a considerable portion of the margin of the shore, including a surface of acres, that has fallen into the river, with all its trees upon it. Just on the edge of these trees, the current is so heavy as to be almost impassable. It is beside the question, to think of forcing the boat up against the main current any where, except with an uncommon number of hands. Therefore any impediments near the shore, must either be surmounted, or the river crossed to avoid them. It not unfrequently happens, that the boat with no small labour, and falling down the stream from the strength of the current, crosses the river to avoid such difficulties, and finds equal ones on the opposite shore.

Sometimes you are obliged to make your way among the trunks of trees, and the water boiling round your boat like that of a mill-race. Then, if the boat "swings," as the phrase is, that is, loses her direction, and exposes her side to the current, you are instantly carried back, and perhaps strike the snags below you, and your boat is snagged, or staved. We were, more than once, half a day, struggling with all our own force, and all that we could raise on the banks, to force the boat through a single rapid, or by one difficult place. We were once in imminent peril, not only of our boat, but, such was the situation of the place, if we had been wrecked there, our lives. Severer fatigue, or harder struggling to carry a point, I never saw endured, than in this case.

We extract an account of the mode of travelling on the Mississippi, which was equally new and amusing to us, and perhaps will be so to many of our readers.

In the spring, one hundred boats have been numbered, that landed in one day at the mouth of the Bayau, at New Madrid. I have strolled to the point on a spring evening, and seen them arriving in fleets. The boisterous gaiety of the hands, the congratulations, the moving picture of life on board the boats, in the numerous animals, large and small, which they carry, their different loads, the evidence of the increasing agriculture of the country above, and more than all, the immense distances which they have already come, and those which they have still to go, afforded to me copious sources of meditation. You can name no point from the numerous rivers of the Ohio and the Mississippi, from which some of these boats have not come. In one place there are boats loaded with planks, from the pine forests of the southwest of New York. In another quarter there are the Yankee notions of Ohio. From Kentucky, pork, flour, whiskey, hemp,

tobacco, bagging, and bale-rope. From Tennessee there are the same articles, together with great quantities of cotton. From Missouri and Illinois, cattle and horses, the same articles generally as from Ohio, together with peltry and lead from Missouri. Some boats are loaded with corn in the ear and in bulk; others with barrels of apples and potatoes. Some have loads of cider, and what they call "cider royal," or cider that has been strengthened by boiling or freezing. There are dried fruits, every kind of spirits manufactured in these regions, and, in short, the products of the ingenuity and agriculture of the whole upper country of the West. They have come from regions, thousands of miles apart. They have floated to a common point of union. The surfaces of the boats cover some acres. Dunghill fowls are fluttering over the roofs as an invariable appendage. The chanticleer raises his piercing note. The swine utter their cries. The cattle low. The horses trample, as in their stables. There are boats fitted on purpose, and loaded entirely with turkeys, that, having little else to do, gobble most furiously. The hands travel about from boat to boat, make inquiries, and acquaintances, and form alliances to yield mutual assistance to each other, on their descent from this to New Orleans. After an hour or two passed in this way, they spring on shore to raise the wind in town. It is well for the people of the village, if they do not become riotous in the course of the evening; in which case I have often seen the most summary and strong measures taken. About midnight the uproar is all hushed. The fleet unites once more at Natchez, or New Orleans, and, although they live on the same river, they may, perhaps, never meet each other again on the earth.

Next morning at the first dawn, the bugles sound. Every thing in and about the boats, that has life, is in motion. The boats, in half an hour, are all under way. In a little while they have all disappeared, and nothing is seen, as before they came, but the regular current of the river. In passing down the Mississippi, we often see a number of boats lashed and floating together. I was once on board a fleet of eight, that were in this way moving on together. It was a considerable walk, to travel over the roofs of this floating town. On board of one boat they were killing swine. In another they had apples, cider, nuts, and dried fruit. One of the boats was a retail or dram shop. It seems that the object in lashing so many boats, had been to barter, and obtain supplies. These confederacies often commence in a frolic, and end in a quarrel, in which case the aggrieved party dissolves the partnership by unlashing, and managing his own boat in his own way. While this fleet of boats is floating separately, but each carried by the same current, nearly at the same rate, visits take place from boat to boat in skiffs.

While I was at New Madrid, a large tinner's establishment floated there in a boat. In it all the different articles of tin-ware were manufactured and sold by wholesale and retail. There were three large apartments, where the different branches of the art were carried on in this floating manufactory. When they had mended all the tin, and vended all that they could sell in one place, they floated on to another. A still more extraordinary manufactory, we were told, was floating down the Ohio, and shortly expected at New Madrid. Aboard this were manufactured axes, scythes, and all other iron tools of this description, and in it horses were shod. In short it was a complete blacksmith's shop of a higher order, and it is said that they jestingly talked of having a trip-hammer worked by a horse power on board. I have frequently seen in this region a dry goods shop in a boat, with its articles very handsomely arranged on shelves. Nor would the delicate hands of the vender have disgraced the spruce clerk behind our city counters. It is now common to see flat-boats worked by a bucket wheel, and a horse power, after the fashion of steam-boat movement. Indeed, every spring brings forth new contrivances of this sort, the result of the farmer's meditations over his winter's fire.

We have only space for two more extracts; the first describes the prairie which lies at the junction of the Missouri and Mississippi.

Between such magnificent outlines, from the foot of the Mamelles, the prairie, in ascending towards the north, has a width of five miles, and is seventy miles in length. On the Mississippi side, the prairie touches the river for most of this distance. The aspect of the whole surface is so smooth, so level, and the verdure so delightful, that the eye reposes upon it. Houses at eight miles distance over this plain, seem just at your feet. A few spreading trees planted by hand, are dotted here and there upon the surface. Two fine islands of woodland, of a circular form, diversify the view. Large flocks of cattle and horses are seen grazing together. It is often the case that a flock of wild deer is seen bounding over the plain. In the autumn, immense flocks of pelicans, sand-bills, cranes, geese, swans, ducks, and all kinds of aquatic fowls, are seen hovering over it. The soil is of the easiest culture and the most exuberant productiveness. The farms are laid out in parallelograms. At the foot of the Mamelles are clumps of hazel bushes, pawpaws, wild-grapes, and prairie plums, in abundance. The grass is thick and tall. Corn and wheat grow in the greatest perfection. When I first saw this charming scene, "Here," said I to my companion who guided me, "here shall be my farm, and here I will end my days!" In effect, take it all in all, I have not seen, before nor since, a landscape which united, in an equal de-

gree, the grand, the beautiful, and fertile. It is not necessary in seeing it to be very young or very romantic, in order to have dreams steal over the mind, of spending an Arcadian life in these remote plains, which just begin to be vexed with the plough, far removed from the haunts of wealth and fashion, in the midst of rustic plenty, and of this beautiful nature.

I will only add, that it is intersected with two or three canals, apparently the former beds of the river; that the soil is mellow, friable, and of an inky blackness; that it immediately absorbs the rain, and affords a road, always dry and beautiful, to Portage des Sioux. It yields generally forty bushels of wheat, and seventy of corn to the acre. The vegetable soil has a depth of forty feet, and earth thrown from the bottom of the wells, is as fertile as that on the surface. At a depth of forty feet are found logs, leaves, pieces of pit-coal, and a stratum of sand and pebbles, bearing evident marks of the former attrition of running waters. Here are a hundred thousand acres of land of this description, fit for the plough.

Our last extract relates to a class of men, who, according to Mr Flint, have been much misrepresented.

The people in the Atlantic states have not yet recovered from the horror, inspired by the term "backwoodsman." This prejudice is particularly strong in New England, and is more or less felt from Maine to Georgia. When I first visited this country, I had my full share, and my family by far too much for their comfort. In approaching the country, I heard a thousand stories of gougings, and robberies, and shooting down with the rifle. I have travelled in these regions thousands of miles under all circumstances of exposure and danger. I have travelled alone, or in company only with such as needed protection, instead of being able to impart it; and this, too, in many instances, where I was not known as a minister, or where such knowledge would have had no influence in protecting me. I never have carried the slightest weapon of defence. I scarcely remember to have experienced any thing that resembled insult, or to have felt myself in danger from the people. I have often seen men that had lost an eye. Instances of murder, numerous and horrible in their circumstances, have occurred in my vicinity. But they were such lawless rencounters, as terminate in murder every where, and in which the drunkenness, brutality, and violence were mutual. They were catastrophes, in which quiet and sober men would be in no danger of being involved. When we look round these immense regions, and consider that I have been in settlements three hundred miles from any court of justice, when we look at the position of the men, and the state of things, the wonder is, that so few outrages and murders occur.

The gentlemen of the towns, even here, speak often with a certain contempt and horror of the backwoodsmen. I have read, and not without feelings of pain, the bitter representations of the learned and virtuous Dr Dwight, in speaking of them. He represents these vast regions, as a grand reservoir for the scum of the Atlantic states. He characterizes in the mass the emigrants from New England, as discontented coblers, too proud, too much in debt, too unprincipled, too much puffed up with self-conceit, too strongly impressed that their fancied talents could not find scope in their own country, to stay there. It is true there are worthless people here, and the most so, it must be confessed, are from New England. It is true there are gamblers, and gougers, and outlaws; but there are fewer of them, than from the nature of things, and the character of the age and the world, we ought to expect. But it is unworthy of the excellent man in question so to designate this people in the mass. The backwoodsman of the west, as I have seen him, is generally an amiable and virtuous man. His general motive for coming here is to be a freeholder, to have plenty of rich land, and to be able to settle his children about him. It is a most virtuous motive. And notwithstanding all that Dr Dwight and Talleyrand have said to the contrary, I fully believe, that nine in ten of the emigrants have come here with no other motive. You find, in truth, that he has vices and barbarisms, peculiar to his situation. His manners are rough. He wears, it may be, a long beard. He has a great quantity of bear or deer skins wrought into his household establishment, his furniture, or dress. He carries a knife, or a dirk, in his bosom, and when in the woods has a rifle on his back, and a pack of dogs at his heels. An Atlantic stranger, transferred directly from one of our cities to his door, would recoil from a rencounter with him. But remember, that his rifle and his dogs are among his chief means of support and profit. Remember, that all his first days here were passed in dread of the savages. Remember, that he still encounters them, still meets bears and panthers. Enter his door, and tell him you are benighted, and wish the shelter of his cabin for the night. The welcome is indeed seemingly ungracious: "I reckon you can stay," or "I suppose we must let you stay." But this apparent ungraciousness is the harbinger of every kindness that he can bestow, and every comfort that his cabin can afford. Good coffee, corn bread and butter, venison, pork, wild and tame fowls are set before you. His wife, timid, silent, reserved, but constantly attentive to your comfort, does not sit at the table with you, but like the wives of the patriarchs, stands and attends on you. You are shown to the best bed which the house can offer. When this kind of hospitality has been afforded you as long as you choose to stay, and when you depart, and speak about your bill, you are most commonly told with some slight mark of resentment, that they do

not keep tavern. Even the flaxen-headed urchins will turn away from your money.

There would be little difficulty in filling our pages with entertaining extracts, and perhaps we have devoted an unreasonable portion of them to this purpose; but we can hardly doubt that they will be full of interest to those who may not be able to procure the book.

MISCELLANY.

PHILOSOPHY OF LANGUAGE.

(*Continued from page* 63.)

Let us, then, try one more experiment to see if it will lead to the same general principles with those which have already been laid down, with regard to the mode in which the import of language is acquired. Take the term "immaterial." How will you convey the meaning of this term, which perhaps is as difficult as any of an intellectual nature to a child, or, in fact, to any person who is entirely ignorant of its import. Perhaps, as is the usual most unhappy and unphilosophical course, in such a case, you will sagely refer him to the dictionary, and that he may have the best light on the subject, to the prince of lexicographers, Johnson. "Immaterial," he finds, means, "incorporeal; distinct from matter; void of matter." But he is still in the dark; what is "incorporeal," and what is "to be distinct from matter?" This definition may dc very well for a philosophe:, who is already in possession of those elements of thought which, when combined in a certain form, are expressed by the term "immaterial." But it is those very elements of thought combined in such a form, of which the child is in search, and a Greek definition would help him just as well to find them as the English, of the terms of which he is still ignorant. Some other mode of explanation must be resorted to. The following appears to be the only natural and intelligible one; and observe, as we pursue it, how an address is, all along, made to some one of the bodily senses of the child, and in this way, eventually, to his own consciousness of the operations, affections, and states of his own mind, thus confirming the positions which have heretofore been laid down.

"Touch this stone, it is hard; this sponge, it is soft; this ice, it is cold; this stove, it is hot; this file, it is rough; this rose leaf, it is smooth. What you can touch is matter. See that cherry, it is red; that orange, it is yellow; that fire, it is bright;

that cloud, it is dark; that pole, it is long; that pin, it is short; that door, it is wide; that trunk, it is deep. What you can see is matter. Smell this pink, it is sweet; that sulphur, it is disagreeable. What you can smell is matter. Taste this apple, it is sweet; this lemon, it is sour; this wormwood, it is bitter. What you can taste is matter. Those things which you can touch, see, smell, and taste, are *material.*"

Thus far, at least, it will be admitted that our explanation has proceeded, by presenting to the consideration of the child objects which are addressed to his bodily senses.

"Observe me attentively; I am thinking about something which I am going to write on this paper. See how I look while I am thinking. There, I have written it on the paper. Read it. Now do you think, and tell me what I shall write. Well, I have written it. Observe me, I will think again. Of what am I thinking? You do not know. You cannot touch my thought. It is not like the stone, the sponge, the ice, the stove, the file, or the rose leaf. It is not hard, soft, cold, hot, rough, or smooth. It is not material. Neither can you see my thought; it is not red, yellow, bright, dark, long, short, wide, or deep. It is not material. Neither can you smell, nor taste my thought, it is not material."

Now if the child had not seen an actual exhibition of thought, by its effects upon the human countenance, and its result by noticing the expression of thought in writing on paper, and thus had his own consciousness excited of his own act of thinking, what conception could he possibly have formed of the term "thought?" And if he had not the explanation of the term "material" made by addressing his bodily senses, how could he be led to the consideration of the entire dissimilitude between "thought" and "matter;" how could he be taught that "thought" is not material? Other modes of illustration might doubtless be adopted, but pursue these if you can, without addressing the bodily senses and without exciting in the child the consciousness of his own acts of mind by means of effects and results which are also addressed to the bodily senses, and the positions laid down will be acknowledged to be untenable.

"You have seen, my child, that thought is not material; in other words, it is immaterial. That something within you that thinks, is called *the soul.* The soul is immaterial."

The same mode of illustration might be pursued with regard to all the operations, affections, and states of the soul, and thus the child would be brought to compare these operations, affections, and states with the various properties and qualities of matter, and to see how totally they are unlike each other, and that to express this dissimilitude we apply the term "material" to the one, and the term "immaterial" to the other. And this is about all the

greatest philosopher knows of this subject. An objection may be raised to the correctness of some of the preceding remarks, from the fact, that persons born blind acquire a knowledge of language without any aid from visible objects. But in their case the sense of feeling supplies the place of that of sight. The process is the same, through the medium of a different sense. This is so obvious with regard to all sensible objects and their qualities, that it hardly needs illustration. How, for instance, could a blind person be taught the meaning of the various terms used to denote the articles of furniture in a house, if he had not felt the substance, shape, and structure of these articles? It is true, he may be taught the substance, shape, and structure of things which he has never felt; but this must be done by using such terms in the description of them as he has before learned by hearing them applied to objects with which he has been made familiar by the sense of feeling. With regard to intellectual objects, it will still be found, by a careful analysis, that the person born blind acquires the import of the terms used to denote them, by a process similar to that before described in the case of a person who sees; that is, by an address to some one of his bodily senses, and, in this way, eventually, to his own consciousness of the operations, affections, and states of his own mind. To illustrate this, let us take the same term which was before used, "immaterial." Our object now is to convey its import to a child born blind. We first direct his attention to the qualities of such objects as he can touch, smell, and taste, and tell him that such objects are called "material." What remains is to excite his consciousness of the operations of his own mind. This must be done by exhibiting to him through the medium of some of his bodily senses, the effects and results of these mental operations.

"Smell this rose, my child, which I hold in my hand. I am thinking to whom I will give it. There, I have given it to your sister. Taste this apple. To whom will you give it? You say to your brother; well, he has it. Touch this money. I am thinking what I will do with it. Do you know what I am thinking I will do with it? No; for I have not told you. You cannot smell, taste, or touch my thought. It is not sweet like the rose, or sour like the apple, or round like the money. Thought is not like any thing which you can smell, taste, or touch. It is not 'material.' In other words, it is 'immaterial.' That something within you, that thinks, is called the soul. The soul is 'immaterial.'"

Observe, that the first illustration of the act of thinking, its effect and result, is that of giving a rose to the sister of the blind child. The illustration would have been impracticable, if he had not known the import of the words, "give," "rose," and "sister." The meaning of these words, it will easily be seen he originally acquired through the medium of his bodily senses. Just as in the form-

er case of the child who could see, a similar illustration of the effect and result of thinking, was that of writing words on paper, which was a visible illustration, the objects employed and the action itself being addressed to the sense of sight.

Those who are familiar with the power and use of language may, doubtless, acquire new complex ideas, by means of mere definitions, or descriptions; but the terms employed in these definitions and descriptions, or the terms used to define and describe these latter terms, and so on, must originally have derived their import, if material, from something immediately affecting the bodily senses, and if intellectual, from the consciousness of the individual of the operations, affections, and state of his mind produced by illustrations derived from objects and actions addressed to some one of his bodily senses. To pursue our inquiry still further, not only are the terms expressive of simple ideas, whether relating to material or intellectual objects, dependent, for their import on illustrations addressed to the bodily senses; but the elements, also, of the grammatical structure and idiom of a language can be acquired only in the same way. A child may, at different times, learn the import of the words, "I," "go," and "door;" and yet the phrase, "I go to the door," would be unintelligible to him, unless accompanied with the action itself of going to the door. "If you touch that candle, I will whip you." With the exception of the word "if," the child might know the import of all the words in this phrase, and still the phrase itself would be unintelligible, unless accompanied with the attempt of the child to touch the candle, and the forbidding and threatening look and action of the parent; and it is this combination of visible circumstances, under this peculiar form, which enables the child to have any conception, though probably, as yet, a very imperfect one, of the import of the word "if," and of the peculiar structure of those sentences in which it is employed. It is by the frequent repetition of such phrases, accompanied by illustrations addressed to his bodily senses, that he at length acquires, not only the elements of the arrangement of words into sentences, but also the import of the articles, pronouns, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions of a language, and the various inflections of those parts of speech which are subject to them.

How complex is the machinery of language. How mighty is its power. The tongue of the orator wields the destiny of a nation. Yet the eloquence which he utters, and its effects upon those who hear it, depend on principles simple as the talk of the nursery, and the thoughts of a little child! Nay, on the same principles depends all that we know of that Being who formed us, and the destiny of that mysterious spirit within us which is to live forever; for what should we know on these subjects without revelation, and how could God himself,—with reverence be it spoken,—

have made a revelation to us, but in the language of man? No one can be a profound linguist, without a thorough acquaintance with the philosophy of the human mind. I do not mean by this, that he must have read all that has been written on this subject, or be familiar with all the technicalities of this branch of science. But he must have attentively noticed, accurately analyzed, and well understood the operations, affections, and states of his own mind. Else how will he comprehend the true import of those numerous intellectual terms in all languages, the explanation of which, as we have seen, eventually depends upon our own consciousness. He finds these terms referring to the workings of other minds; but what does he know of other minds, only so far as he is acquainted with his own? He may give very subtle and learned definitions of these terms; but what is this, but ringing changes upon words, if he understands not the elements of which his definitions are composed. He may know all the curious points and difficulties of grammatical construction, and talk profoundly about the agreement and government of words, and explain all the joints which bind sentences together, and all the pivots on which they turn, and yet be grossly in the dark with regard to the true import of these words, and the exact train of thought which these sentences are intended to convey. Nay, he may translate from one language into another with great skill and even elegance, and yet be very ignorant of both.

Paradoxical as the latter assertion may seem, it can easily be shown to be true. A school-boy may translate "Quousque tandem abutêre, Catilina, patientiâ nostrâ?" and tell you very fluently, that it means, "How long, Catiline, wilt thou abuse our patience?" But are you sure that he knows accurately the import of "patientiâ" in Latin, or "patience" in English, or the true meaning of the phrase "to abuse patience?" Question him and see, and perhaps you will find, that he is, to say the least, a good deal ignorant of both, and that most of his knowledge consists in ascertaining from his dictionary, that "abutêre" means "to abuse," and that, with the addition of "patientiâ nostrâ," the phrase must mean "wilt thou abuse our patience?" The fact is, there is a great deal in the mere grammatical structure of language which is purely mechanical. And the pupil, by the help of the definitions in his dictionary, from which he learns what words in English correspond to certain words in another tongue, and of the rules in his grammar, which explain to him the dependences of these words on each other, may make out, what would be called an excellent translation, and still enter very little into the true spirit of the author, and often be quite in the dark with regard to the ideas which are intended to be conveyed.

How many parrot-talkers there are in the world, who, by mingling with those who think before they speak, catch their phrase-

ology, and then, to the amazement of thousands, speak ever so fluently without the pain of thinking. By the power of imitation, from the force of habit, or the principle of association, one may learn to combine words together very dexterously, to use high-sounding epithets, and to model sentences wrought up to the highest degree of elegance, and yet neither the author nor the reader be a whit the wiser for what is written; a very pretty pageant, save that you cannot discover its design; a sort of rareeshow, in which the characters concerned are very great, you are told, but very mysterious personages.

When we consider the importance of language with regard to the education of youth, and its influence upon all the business and concerns of life, and its effect upon the intellectual and moral character of man; and, above all, that it is the only instrument by which we can obtain a correct understanding of that Divine Revelation, on which all our knowledge, and hopes, and fears with regard to our eternal destiny depend; and that this mighty instrument derives all its force from a few simple principles which are developed in the first stages of our being; who cannot but lament that so little has yet been done to carry these principles into correct and successful operation, and that children are left to acquire the elements of their mother tongue almost to chance, or if entrusted to a teacher, it is deemed quite sufficient if he can learn them to pronounce, and spell, and read correctly; whereas then is the very time to imitate the wisdom of the architect, who knows that all his plans of beauty and magnificence depend upon the support of his building, and whose genius, much as it may delight itself in the labours of a grand utility, or the ornaments of a refined taste, does not disdain to stoop to the humbler task of laying the foundation deep and strong.

(*To be continued.*)

ORIGINAL POETRY.

DREAMS.

Aut quæ sopitos deludunt Somnia sensus.

Methought 't was night; and my unquiet spirit
Stood in the silent presence of a Power
Invisible, though felt. There was no voice,
And yet unutterable thoughts came o'er me,
Accompanied by feelings, such as grow
From some unearthly music. There were words
Spoken as in the fever of a dream,
Breathless and indistinct, yet full of awe

High and mysterious. The air was full
Of sights, that scarce were seen, dim images,
Crowding from out the depth of darkness, wild
And terrible, though calm. They looked upon me
Intensely, and they seemed to beckon me
Thoughtful and sad. No utterance meanwhile
Told me their wishes, but they made themselves
Visible to me in their gathering brows
And lowering glances. Then they waved me on
To follow them, and like a vanishing troop
Of shadows, mingled in the thicker shades,
And all were lost. A deeper darkness hung
Around me, like a burden, and it seemed
To close me in a prison, like the grave,
Narrow and cold. A damp and deathly chill
Ran through me, and methought the earth beneath
Sank, and the utter night, that circled me,
Grew thicker, till all thoughts were objectless,
And memory vanished. All the little light,
That centred in my brain, seemed like a taper
Amid the vapours of a charnel-house,
Quivering and pale; a blue, unearthly flame
Hovers awhile above it, and it falls
Beneath the dark oppression, and then dies.
So thought, and life, and all their energies
Trembled awhile, and hung upon their close,
And then went out. I lay entranced, I know not
If hours or ages,—not a sleep of dreams,
Busy and full of forms and phantasies,
But blank and desolate, without a motion,
Even in the spirit's core,—an utter death,
That leaves no memory of itself, and makes
Myriads of years a moment. So I lay,
Forgotten and alone. Methought a star
Came to my heart and brain, and some dim feelings
Were moving there, faint as the light of shadows,
When night is deepest, and the waning moon
Hurries behind a cloud. They grew upon me,
And there was light and joy,—a happy dream,
Confused and shapeless, but a dream of days
That are to us our Heaven; the early days
Of wonder and of hope, the blissful days
Of buoyancy and love, unspeakable
And holy love, stainless, and bright, and pure,
The heart's devotion. They were in my dreams
Struggling to life, and taking, every moment,
A fairer being. I was on the hills,

Methought; and it was Spring; and one sweet bird
Settled beside me, on a flowering thorn,
And sang how softly. Then the morning came,
And there was brightness, and the kindling clouds
Were pearl, and gold, and flame; and then the sun
Rolled up, and all was day. An avenue
Of ancient elms bent over me their boughs,
And the slant light came underneath the arch,
And tinted all the leaves, the quivering leaves,
With rainbows, till a vault of liquid fire
Seemed lifted round me, and I walked unhurt
Amid the glorious furnace. There was magic
And wonder in the hour; and then I looked
On the calm ocean, like a burnished sheet
Of emerald, and all its long, long waves
Were ridged with flame; and by me flowed a brook,
Prattling its merry tale to the cool winds,
That shook the grass and flowers, that stood around it
To gaze upon its mirror, and behold,
Narcissus-like, their beauty; and it wound
Its way unto a meadow, all one bed
Of glancing diamonds. 'T was a dream of light,
And soon as full of love. Methought a voice,
A well known voice, a voice of very sweetness,
So tender, that I felt the first fresh tears
Flow at its touch of music, and dissolve me
In the young happiness, once known, and then
For ever gone,—methought that tender voice
Came from a wood hard by; and it was singing
Catches of old familiar tunes, the treasures
Of infant memory, that warble on
In the bright stream of innocent joys, through all
Our darker years, and hold their unchecked way
Even to the old man's grave. I heard that voice,—
And then awoke within me such a flow
Of passionate thoughts, blended of bright and dark,
Gentle and wild, a flood, that long had swelled
And borne me on its crest, till it became
A sea of cloud and storm; that in the grasp
And agony of passion, and the last
Fixed struggle of despair, again the light
Faded around me, and I sank once more
In night and horror.

P.

THE LOST TO HOPE.

THAT haughty brow which mocks at woe,
  Unmoved by hopes or fears;
That eye which will not brook the flow
  Of sympathetic tears;
That quivering lip, which curls so well;
  That breast of heartless pride,—
On all there is a withering spell
  Which may not be defied.
And though that broad and pallid brow
  Seem undefiled by sin,
No lip may tell, no heart may know
  The gloomy hell within:
For all unholy passions there,
  Where holy thoughts should be,
Still lurk beneath that sullen glare
  Of cold misanthropy;
And though thy strife be stern and long,
  It may not set thee free,—
The chains of destiny are strong,
  They will not yield to thee.

The coiling snake in sunny bowers
  At thee shall launch his sting;
And where all hands may gather flowers,
  For thee but thorns shall spring;
And thou shalt feel all bitter pangs
  Which others do but feign,—
While demons fix their poisonous fangs
  Upon thy bursting brain.
The spirit of the plague shall go
  On Heaven's own balmiest breath;
For thee the crystal spring shall flow
  With bitterness and death,—
Which thou shalt taste, yet mayest not die,
  Though seeking death with tears;
Nor art nor chance avail to fly
  This weary curse of years.

From youth to age, from land to land,
  Or on the lone, deep sea,—
Whate'er the wave, where'er the strand,
  Thou dragg'st thyself with thee,
A weary weight, a deep distress,
  A burden unremoved;
And none shall ever rise to bless,—
  Thou can'st not be beloved.

I read it in the midnight heaven,
  When wild stars streamed on high;
I read the things to be forgiven,—
  It is your destiny:
But most of all, I read it now
  Upon that glance of pride;
'T is written on that pallid brow,—
  It may not be defied.

G. L.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

Interest made Equity, being a Republication of the Article on the subject of Interest, contained in the Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica, from the pen of Mr Macculloch. New York. 1826. 8vo. pp. 32.

The republication of this piece in the pamphlet form, is owing, we presume, to Professor M'Vickar, of Columbia College, New York. His main object in causing it to be reprinted, as we gather from his preface, was to give wider circulation to Mr Macculloch's opinion of the usury laws. There is but one sentiment, we apprehend, in regard to the impolicy of penal regulations concerning interest, among men of science; and but one sentiment among practical men. But between these two classes of the community, there is a large number of upright, fair-minded men, who, having never possessed themselves of the cogent facts and luminous inductions of the books of political economy, nor ever become familiarized with the actual state of business in the money market, still continue honestly to entertain the most erroneous ideas of the nature of interest. Among these it is, that cool, candid, dispassionate writings, like Mr Macculloch's article, may exercise a beneficial influence.

The subject has lately acquired rather more than usual interest in Massachusetts, in consequence of the recent partial repeal of the laws against usury in this State. At the last session of the Legislature an act was passed, providing in substance, that no contract, on which more than six per cent. has been reserved, shall for that reason be void, but the interest only shall be forfeited; and providing further, that no action shall lie to recover back any excessive interest which shall have been actually paid. We deem this act a most important improvement of our law. Its passage proves that sound and enlightened doctrines on this point are gaining ground, and have already secured a foothold in society. The law, it is true, was opposed with much zeal and perseverance; and the minority subsequently published in the newspapers a formal protest against its enactment. But, although we are entirely satisfied of the perfect sincerity of conviction and integrity of prin-

ciple, by which the opponents of the measure were actuated, we cannot but rejoice, that so much advancement has been made in what we consider one of the fundamental doctrines of a liberal policy.

Register of Debates in Congress, comprising the leading Debates and Incidents of the Second Session of the Eighteenth Congress:—together with an Appendix, containing the most important State Papers and Public Documents, to which the Session has given birth. To which are added the Laws enacted during the Session, with a copious Index to the whole. Vol. I. Washington. 1825. Large 8vo. pp. 742. 123.

Messrs Gales and Seaton's excellent reports of the debates in Congress, as published in the National Intelligencer, are well known to the American people, and duly appreciated. We rejoice to see them in a less transitory shape. For although the productions of the newspaper press produce the most extensive influence on the public mind, and present a great mass of the most valuable intelligence to the community, still hardly any thing possesses a less permanent character. The best newspapers are in everybody's hands at the time of publication; but speedily perish, with the exception of the few which are preserved by the curious, or collected in literary repositories. They contain, besides, a large quantity of matter wholly ephemeral in its nature, and of no lasting interest, unless to the professed antiquary. Hence we regard the Congressional Register as containing a most important addition to our stock of historical and political information in a fixed shape, and sincerely hope the publication will be sufficiently encouraged to ensure its continuance. Like the British Parliamentary Register, it will never cease to possess increasing value hereafter, when the individuals, whose honourable efforts fill its pages, shall have passed off the stage of life, to give a place to the laudable ambition of other generations of men. In a word, it comprises, in a durable form, a complete history, for the time being, of "the legislation of the government of the United States."

The second session of the Eighteenth Congress was not marked by so many debates, which strongly fastened the public attention, as the first session of that or of the present Congress. The then approaching election of the President of the United States seemed to be the all-absorbing topic of consideration. Still several debates occurred on subjects unconnected with this, which are instructive and remarkable. The act concerning Gen. Lafayette was a signal proof that republics can sometimes be just, generous, and grateful. And the act consolidating the laws in regard to the post-office, and that for the punishment of crimes against the United States, were business measures, exceedingly creditable to the members who introduced them and carried them through the respective branches of Congress.

INTELLIGENCE.

Antiquarian Society in Normandy. An Antiquarian Society was lately established in Normandy, and is composed of many eminent literary characters. Their chief object is to collect and publish facts tending to illustrate the history of that country, which has been successively occupied by Celts, Gauls, Romans, Saxons, Franks, Neustrians, and Normans. The Society have already published ten volumes.

Asiatic Society. The Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland has recently published a volume of papers relating to the history and antiquities of Bengal; some of these refer to inscriptions, which are supposed to fix the true date of some ancient revolutions in that country.

Royal Society of Literature. The Royal Society of Literature, instituted in 1824, and more recently incorporated, is in a prosperous state, if we may judge from the imposing account given of a late meeting, and the names of noblemen and bishops who are members of it. Ten associates, who are eminent scholars, have been elected, to whom the king has given one hundred guineas each. A volume is preparing for the press by the Society; and it is particularly engaged on the subject of Egyptian hieroglyphics.

Education in South America. The cause of education is flourishing in South America. There are fifty public schools in Buenos Ayres.

Canada. The attention of the British government is turned to Canada; and means are used to increase its population, and encourage the developement of its natural resources.

Gentleman's Magazine. A writer in the English Gentleman's Magazine, supposes the ruins at Stonehenge to be an antediluvian work. Another writer in that Magazine, undertakes to show, that the English language is derived almost entirely from the Saxon; the proportion of Saxon words in certain chapters of John's Gospel being as nine to ten. And one of its correspondents expresses a doubt, whether the pretended discoveries, and the innovations in science, philosophy, and theology are real improvements, or have tended much to the exaltation and happiness of mankind.

Languages spoken on this Continent. The English language is said to be spoken in America by eleven and a half millions of people; the Spanish, by ten millions; the Indian, by seven and a half; the Portuguese, by three; the French, by one million two hundred thousand; the Dutch, and Danish, and Swedish, by two hundred thousand;—being twenty-seven millions, in the whole, of people speaking European languages in America.

Newspapers in Greece. We rejoice to learn, that weekly papers continue to be published in several parts of Greece, and are extensively circulated. If well conducted, thay cannot fail to have a good effect upon the interests of civil liberty. "The Chronicle" is published twice a week at Missolonghi; its motto is, "The greatest utility to the greatest number." A gazette at Hydra, twice a week, called "The Friend of the Laws." Journals are published also at Athens and Napoli; and one, called "The Telegraph," at Vienna, in the modern Greek language.

Items from English Periodicals.

On the 9th of December, a French vessel, belonging to St Malo, arrived at the port of St Ives, on her return from St John's River, on the Coast of Africa, with a crew consisting only of twelve men; the captain, supercargo, and eight others, having died in the course of the voyage. When the vessel was boarded, she was found well fitted out for the reception of slaves, with abundance of manacles, chains, and other instruments of torture; there were also found four black men and a boy, who constituted part of the wretched cargo.

The receipts of Customhouse duties at Liverpool, have, in the year just ended, notwithstanding the panic which has prevailed in the interior of the country during the last quarter, exceeded 3,000,000*l.*

A farmer, named Kingston, of Ditcheat, who was born without arms, is enabled to accomplish with his feet all those purposes for which the hands are generally employed. He shaves and writes with great facility, and in the cricket ground is an admirable bowler.

Mr Macqueen, the editor of the Glasgow Courier, has been voted by the Legislative Assembly of Jamaica, 5000*l.* to be paid without any deduction, for his unsolicited services in advocating the Colonial interests, and this example of pecuniary reward is recommended to the other islands for adoption.

An ingenious youth of Crowland, has had for some time a flea, with a chain round its neck, and fastened to a cherry stone. He has also made six dozen of silver spoons, which he puts inside the stone.

A steam vessel of from 400 to 500 tons, is now building at Bristol, by the proprietors of the War Office Packets, for the purpose of conveying goods and passengers between that city and Ireland.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHY.

The Life of Elisha Tyson, the Philanthropist. By a Citizen of Baltimore.

Memoirs of the late Mrs Susan Huntington, of Boston, Mass. Consisting principally of Extracts from her Journal and Letters; with the Sermon occasioned by her death. By Benjamin Wisner. Boston. 12mo. pp. 408.

DRAMA.

The Widow's Son, or Which is the Traitor; a Melo-Drama. By S. Woodworth, Author of "Deed of Gift," "Castle of Olmutz," &c. Price 25 cents.

EDUCATION.

The First Lines of English Grammar; being a brief Abstract of the Author's Larger Work. Designed for Young Learners. By Goold Brown. Second edition. New York. 18mo. pp. 108.

A New College Atlas; consisting of a Series of General Maps of the various Grand Divisions of the known World, adapted to the Course of Geographical Instruction, usually pursued in the Colleges and High Schools of the United States. Philadelphia.

Conversations on Natural Philosophy. By the Author of "Conversations on Chemistry," and "Conversations on Political Economy." Improved by the Rev. J. L. Blake, A. M. Eighth edition. Boston. 1826. 12mo. pp. 252.

An Arithmetic; being a Sequel to First Lessons in Arithmetic. By Warren Colburn. Third edition. Boston. 1826. 12mo. pp. 267.

The Union Primer, or First Book for Children; compiled for the Sunday School Union, and fitted for the Use of Schools in the United States.

An Outline of Bible History, with Notes and Observations; adapted to the minds of Youth, and designed for Sabbath and other Schools; with Engravings. By Rev. Charles A. Goodrich. Second edition. Hartford. 1826. 18mo. pp. 108.

LAW.

A Report from the Commissioners, appointed to Revise the Statute Laws of the State of New York, prepared in obedience to a Resolution of the Honourable the Assembly. Communicated March 15. Albany. 1826. 8vo. pp. 112.

An Anniversary Discourse, delivered before the Historical Society of New York, December 6, 1823, showing the Origin, Progress, Antiquities, Curiosities, and Nature of the Common Law. By William Sampson, Esq. Also, his Correspondence with various learned Jurists upon the History of the Law; with the addition of several Essays, Tracts, and Documents, relating to the subject, by President Cooper, of Columbia College, S. C., Governor Winslow, S. C., &c. &c. Washington. 1826. 8vo. pp. 202.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the English Courts of Common Law. Edited by Thomas Sergeant and John C. Lowber, Esqrs. Vol. IX. Parts 3 and 4; containing the second volume of Bingham's Reports in C. P.

MEDICINE.

A Lecture, delivered at the opening of the Medical Department of the Columbia College in the District of Columbia, March 30, 1825. By Thomas Sewall, M. D. Professor of Anatomy and Physiology. Second edition. Washington City. 8vo. pp. 43.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Philadelphia; or, Glances at Surgeons, Physicians, First Circles, Western Parties, &c. Philadelphia. 1826. 18mo.

The Gentleman's Annual Calendar, for 1826; containing an Almanac, List of both Houses of Legislature, Foreign Ministers, &c. Corrected to December 30, 1825. Philadelphia. 18mo. pp. 32.

The Savannah Directory for the year 1826.

An Address in Commemoration of Lexington Battle, delivered April 19, 1826. By W. Emmons. Boston. Published for the Author. 8vo. pp. 16.

Cobwebs to Catch Flies, or Dialogues in Short Sentences, adapted to Children from the age of Three to Eight Years.

Select Rhymes for the Nursery, with Twelve Coloured Engravings.

A Reply to Judge Johnson's Remarks on an Article in the North American Review, relating to Count Pulaski. By Paul Bentalou, Author of "Pulaski Vindicated." Baltimore. 1826. 8vo.

POETRY.

Miscellaneous Poems. By Mrs Eliza Murden. Charleston, S. C. 1826. 12mo. pp. 216.

We acknowledge the receipt of a review of this book; but as it is anonymous, and unaccompanied by a copy of the book, we must decline publishing it. We find it necessary to state generally, that no anonymous review can be inserted in the United States Literary Gazette, unless it is accompanied by a copy of the book reviewed, that we may judge of the correctness of the criticisms, for which we must become responsible.

POLITICS.

The Diplomacy of the United States; being an Account of the Foreign Relations of the Country, from the first Treaty with France, in 1778, to the Treaty of Ghent, in 1814, with Great Britain. Boston. 1826. 8vo. pp. 379.

THEOLOGY.

A Sermon, delivered on Fast Day, April 6, 1826, in the Presbyterian Church, Boston. By James Sabine, Minister of said Church. Boston. 8vo. pp. 40.

A Sermon on the Nature and Influence of Faith. By Leonard Woods, D. D. Andover. 1826. 8vo. pp. 27.

VOYAGES.

A Voyage to South America, with an Account of a Shipwreck in the River La Plata, in the year 1817. By the Only Survivor. Boston. 1826. 18mo. pp. 128.

AMERICAN EDITIONS OF FOREIGN WORKS.

Elegant Extracts, or useful and entertaining Passages from the best English Authors and Translators; principally designed for the Use of Young Persons. Originally compiled by the Rev. Vicesimus Knox, D. D. A new edition. Embellished with elegant Engravings. Prepared by James G. Percival. In 6 vols. Vol. I. Prose. Boston. 1826. 8vo. pp. 415.

Il Turco in Italia. The Turk in Italy; an Opera, as performed at the New York Theatre. [In Italian and English.] Price 37½ cents.

The Works of Anna Lætitia Barbauld. With a Memoir. By Lucy Aikin. In two volumes. New York. 1826. 12mo.

An Essay on Decision of Character. By John Foster. From the London edition. Boston. 1826. 18mo. pp. 93.

Comyn's Digest. Vol. VI. Price $6.

A Picture of Greece in 1825, as exhibited in the personal Narratives of James Emerson, Esq., Count Pecchio, and N. H. Humphreys, Esq.; comprising a detailed Account of the late Campaign, and Sketches of the principal Military, Naval, and Political Chiefs. New York. 1826. 2 vols. 12mo.

ERRATUM. In our last number, page 111, line first, for *praise*, read *pause*.

Published on the first and fifteenth day of every month, by HARRISON GRAY, at the office of the United States Literary Gazette, No. 74, Washington-Street, Boston, for the Proprietors. Terms, $5 per annum. Cambridge: Printed at the University Press, by Hilliard & Metcalf.

THE UNITED STATES

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REVIEWS.

Some Account of the Life, Writings, and Speeches of William Pinkney. By HENRY WHEATON. New York. 1826. 8vo.

THIS work does not belong to that department of biography, whose object is to amuse the reader, by presenting numerous anecdotes of the private life of an illustrious individual. He who opens it with the expectation of finding such a book as "Boswell's Johnson," or "Moore's Sheridan," will be disappointed; but the American patriot, and especially the constitutional lawyer and the enlightened politician, will hail with gratitude Mr Wheaton's most successful effort to perpetuate some relics of a mighty genius, whose fame, circumscribed by no sectional limits, has contributed not a little to elevate the intellectual character of the nation.

As historical documents, the writings and speeches of Mr Pinkney are of the highest value. Foreigners often express their surprise, that in a country where all transactions pass the ordeal of the people's scrutiny, and where state secrets can scarcely be said to exist, there should be so few records of the events of past times. Indeed a knowledge even of contemporary facts is not always attainable, without great difficulty. Newspaper intelligence is not only imperfect, but literally ephemeral. It is true, that the Journals of Congress and of the State Legislatures, are regularly printed, and the tables of our representatives are loaded with official documents. The circulation, however, of the papers presented to the local legislatures is extremely limited, and we ordinarily know less of the economical regulations of

neighbouring states, and of their peculiar laws, than of the measures adopted or discussed by the French Chambers or British Parliament. A work, which should furnish a summary of the most interesting reports and other public documents, is still a *desideratum*. "The American State Papers" contain much important matter relating to our foreign intercourse, but the writings of Mr Pinkney, particularly his private letters, will afford great assistance in the true understanding of our political history.

The subject of the memoir was not, indeed, connected with our revolutionary story. What period of the world, however, has been more marked by great occurrences than that which his political life embraces? And who has participated more largely than this enlightened diplomatist and learned jurist, either in the discussion of the most interesting questions of international law, or in settling the true interpretation of that written guaranty of our liberties,—the federal constitution? Mr Wheaton has drawn a finished portrait of the eloquent advocate and able minister, though the events of his life are described in Mr Pinkney's own words, wherever the materials with which the editor was supplied, were adequate to the purpose. From these sources, we shall endeavour to cull a short notice. Born in 1764, Mr Pinkney was, at the age of twenty-four, chosen a member of the Legislature of Maryland, and only two years after, was called to a seat in Congress; of this latter distinction, however, as will appear in the sequel, he did not then avail himself. Having been previously honoured, on repeated occasions, with the confidence of his fellow citizens, Mr Pinkney was appointed, together with Mr Gore, to the commission in London, established by the seventh article of Jay's treaty. The duties of this board, were to fix the compensation for losses sustained by our citizens, "by reason of irregular or illegal captures or condemnations of their vessels and other property, under colour of authority or commissions from His Majesty." The principal classes of cases, for which allowances were made, may be referred to captures or condemnations growing out of the provision order of 1793, and of the instructions given to British cruisers in accordance with the rule of 1756. The former regulation had for its ostensible object the reduction of France, by withholding foreign corn. The attempt thus to extend the principle of contraband, under the absurd pretence of starving a whole nation, by depriving it of supplies, which would not have sustained one of the provinces for a single week, was ably combated by Mr Pinkney and his asso-

ciate, as well as by Colonel Trumbull, on whom, as the fifth Commissioner selected by lot, in most instances devolved the responsibility of deciding contested claims.

The duties of the commission detained Mr Pinkney in England till 1804; but, though withdrawn by this and other similar engagements from professional labours, during several of the most active years of life, it may be doubted whether his absence from the United States was unpropitious to his subsequent legal eminence. In this country there is practically little distinction made between the different departments of the business of the law. It is difficult for a counsellor, who has not attained the first eminence, to avoid those petty details, which are not more opposed to the liberal feelings of a gentleman, than they are calculated to belittle the mind, and to destroy all honourable aspiration after excellence. Absence from clients did not prevent Mr Pinkney, as his letters fully show, from persevering in his professional studies. As an additional evidence of his attention to his chosen avocation, we would remark, on the strength of information obtained from an authentic source, that Mr Pinkney was more frequently present in the courts of Westminster and at Doctors' Commons, than any practising barrister or advocate; and that during his excursions in the country, Coke upon Littleton was a necessary appendage to his travelling establishment. Relaxation from intense professional employment afforded him leisure for those elegant studies, which tend so greatly to embellish public discourses, nor can we lightly prize his opportunity of witnessing the administration of justice in the parent country, and of associating with the living ornaments of English jurisprudence. Moreover, in order to account for Mr Pinkney's repeated acceptance of foreign employment, his biographer says, that "he found it necessary to vary his occupations, and to retire altogether from the bar for a season, in order to refresh his wearied body and mind, with the purpose of again returning to it, with an alacrity invigorated and quickened by this temporary suspension of his professional pursuits."

Only two years after Mr Pinkney's return to America, President Jefferson associated him with Mr Monroe, our minister plenipotentiary to England, in the special mission, which he deemed it expedient to send to that country. The conclusion of a treaty by these gentlemen, and its immediate rejection, are well known facts. As, however, the American commissioners expressly stated to the British, that they exceeded their powers in acceding to the convention of 1806, the president was not

disposed to withdraw, in any degree, his confidence from Mr Pinkney, who remained as the minister, on Mr Monroe's leaving London. This station he continued to fill till some events preceding the declaration of war, induced a recall of our diplomatic representative at the English court. During his residence abroad, a confidential correspondence was carried on with Mr Madison, much of which is now for the first time published. These letters, we think, will be considered among the most valuable parts of the present work.

A letter which Mr Pinkney addressed to his brother, in 1801, shortly after Mr Jefferson had entered on the duties of the presidency, will place his support of the republican administration on its true grounds.

When the contest for president was reduced to Mr Jefferson and Mr Burr, my judgment was fixed that the former ought to be preferred—and I went so far as to think that his superiority in every particular that gives a title to respect and confidence, was so plain and decided as to leave no room for an impartial and unprejudiced man to hesitate in giving him his voice. * * *

I have at all times thought highly of Mr Jefferson, and have never been backward to say so. I have never seen, or fancied I saw, in the perspective of his administration the calamities and disasters, the anticipation of which has filled so many with terror and dismay. * * *

In short, I never could persuade myself to tremble, lest the United States should find, in the presidency of Mr Jefferson, the evils which might be expected to flow from a weak or a wicked government. I am, on the contrary, satisfied that he has talents, knowledge, integrity, and stake in the country sufficient to give us well-founded confidence, that our affairs will be well administered so far as shall depend on him; although he may not always perhaps make use of exactly the same means and agents that our partialities or peculiar opinions might induce us to wish.

The private communications between Mr Pinkney and Mr Madison show, that our public men did not hold a *language official*, and a *language confidential*, but that the course of policy which, under Mr Madison's administration, resulted in open hostilities, was dictated by their unbiassed judgment. In a letter from Mr Pinkney, dated May 3, 1809, the unjustifiable conduct of both of the great belligerents is fully admitted, and the inexpediency of a war with France placed wholly on the ground of policy.

For my own part, I have always believed that a war with France, if it could be avoided, was the idlest thing we could do. We may

talk of "unfurling the republican banner against France"—but, when we had unfurled our banner, there would be an end of our exploits. This is precisely such a flourish as might be expected from a heavy intellect wandering from its ordinary track. It is not remembered that if we go to war with France, we shall be shut out from the continent of Europe, without knowing where it would cease to repel us. It is not remembered that in a war with France we might *suffer*, but could not *act*—that we should be an humble ally without hope of honour, and a feeble enemy without a chance of victory. It appears to me that the world would stand amazed if we, a commercial nation, whose interests are incompatible with war, should, *upon the instigation of our passions*, strut into the lists with gigantic France, with a metaphor in our mouths, but with no means of annoyance in our hands, and professing to be the champions of commerce, do just enough to provoke its destruction, and to make ourselves ridiculous.

It seems hardly requisite, at this day, to say any thing in vindication of the purity of our late rulers. Even those, who formerly talked of French influence, have long since forborne their calumnies, and there are few Americans, who are not justly proud of the unsullied reputation of that succession of individuals, whom the voice of their fellow citizens has called to the chief magistracy of the country. Against England and France we had most grievous complaints, and the disposition of both powers seemed almost equally hostile to our neutral rights. By both nations were our ships captured, in accordance with decrees which set at defiance the best defined principles of public law. Between the pretended blockades which preceded the French decrees of Berlin and Milan, the decrees themselves, and the British orders in council, little else than nominal distinctions can be made. The end of Napoleon's policy was the subjugation of England, at whatever cost. The effect of his measures on commercial prosperity was never deemed of sufficient moment to arrest his attention. Though, in his victorious course, the conquered states ordinarily paid the expense of their own humiliation, the imperial treasury sometimes stood in need of extraordinary aid. To harrass her enemy by cutting of her trade with neutrals, and to supply the coffers of Napoleon, the property of our innocent merchants was captured on the high seas, or confiscated in the ports of France. For vessels and cargoes taken, in many instances, without even the semblance of a trial, and, in others, without the apology afforded by a violation of the illegal decrees in force at the time of the sequestration, no compensation has yet been received from the legitimate government, which has

succeeded to all the duties as well as rights of the imperial dynasty. On the other hand, the ministry of England had not then adopted the great truth, that a state is benefited by the prosperity of every other with which it maintains commercial relations. The recognition of this principle was reserved for the administration of the present day. Hence the petty jealousy of our growing prosperity, and apprehensions of our maritime rivalry. "The spirit of monopoly," said Mr Pinkney, "has seized the people and government of this country. We shall not, under any circumstances, be tolerated as rivals in navigation and trade; it is in vain to hope that Great Britain will voluntarily foster the naval means of the United States. All her prejudices—all her calculations are against it. Even as allies we should be subjects of jealousy."

Though our complaints against England and France were similar in many respects, the subject of impressment created an additional source of difficulty with the former; and the affair of the Chesapeake, and other accidental occurrences, served to widen the breach between the nations.

Mr Pinkney, shortly after his second return to the United States, was appointed Attorney-General by President Madison; and, during the war, he appeared in a character quite foreign from his former pursuits, by accepting the command of a volunteer corps; and, while acting in this capacity, he was severely wounded at Bladensburg. On the conclusion of peace, Mr Pinkney took a conspicuous part in the discussion of the question, how far the House of Representatives may interfere with the treaty-making power? The conclusions at which this constitutional lawyer arrived, were the same as those assumed by General Washington, at an early period of the government.

In 1806, Mr Pinkney was appointed a special envoy to Naples, and minister plenipotentiary to Russia. The Neapolitan claims grew out of the seizures to enforce the colonial system of Bonaparte, and resemble our demands against the other tributary states of the late empire. After two years passed in Russia, Mr Pinkney for a third time, resumed his profession. Though his attention to legal business left little leisure for other pursuits, his native State conferred on him one of the highest distinctions to which an American citizen can attain,—satisfied that the occasional exertions of a highly gifted man were to be preferred to the constant efforts of an inferior mind. It was, by reason of his situation as senator, that Mr Pinkney became connected with a discussion that long agitated the American confederacy. In

early life, he had vindicated the rights of the negro. His speech in the legislature of 1789, as well as the one on the Missouri question, are given in this volume. Though the latter is, in the opinion of many, opposed to the principles of the former, we should remember that the case before Congress was not confined to considerations of humanity, but involved a great constitutional question. It may be doubted, whether new states can be inhibited by the national legislature from passing laws within the acknowledged prerogative of the old members of the confederacy; at all events the existence of the congressional power is to be established by reason, not by feeling.

We have already remarked, that Mr Pinkney was often employed in the exposition of constitutional points. These he was called on to discuss, sometimes in his legal, and, at others, in his political character. We shall here refer to a case which occurred at an early period of his public life; and we would particularly call the attention of our readers to it, because the principle which it establishes is even now contravened by the laws of several of the States.

In 1790, he was elected a member of Congress, and his election was contested upon the ground that he did not reside in the district for which he was chosen, as required by the law of the State. But he was declared duly elected, and returned accordingly, by the Executive Council, upon the principle that the State Legislature had no authority to require other qualifications than those enumerated in the constitution of the United States; and that the power of regulating the times, places, and manner of holding the elections, did not include that of superinducing the additional qualification of residence within the district for which the candidate was chosen. He made on the occasion, what was considered, a very powerful argument in support of his own claim to be returned; but declined on account of his professional pursuits, and the state of his private affairs, to accept the honour which had been conferred upon him.

The speeches on the constitutionality of the bank, and in the case of the Nereide, a prize, afford appropriate specimens of the forensic talents of their author. The following extracts make us regret, that Mr Wheaton has not favoured us with more of his own reflections on a public character, whose various qualities he is so capable of properly appreciating. Speaking of Mr Pinkney's first appearance at the bar, our author remarks:

His very first efforts seem to have given him a commanding attitude in the eye of the public. His attainments in the law of

real property and the science of special pleading, then the two great foundations of legal distinction, were accurate and profound; and he had disciplined his mind by the cultivation of that species of logic, which, if it does not lead to the brilliant results of inductive philosophy, contributes essentially to invigorate the reasoning faculty, and to enable it to detect those fallacies which are apt to impose upon the understanding in the warmth and hurry of forensic discussion. His style in speaking was marked by an easy flow of natural eloquence and a happy choice of language. His voice was very melodious, and seemed a most winning accompaniment to his pure and effective diction. His elocution was calm and placid—the very contrast of that strenuous, vehement, and emphatic manner, which he subsequently adopted.

Our limits only permit us to introduce a single paragraph from the concluding observations.

To extraordinary natural endowments, Mr Pinkney added deep and various knowledge in his profession. A long course of study and practice had familiarized his mind with the science of jurisprudence. His intellectual powers were most conspicuous in the investigations connected with that science. He had felt himself originally attracted to it by invincible inclination; it was his principal pursuit in life; and he never entirely lost sight of it in his occasional deviations into other pursuits and employments. The lures of political ambition and the blandishments of polished society—or perhaps a vague desire of universal accomplishment and general applause, might sometimes tempt him to stray for a season from the path which the original bent of his genius had assigned him. But he always returned with fresh ardour and new delight to his appropriate vocation. He was devoted to the law with a true enthusiasm; and his other studies and pursuits, so far as they had a serious object, were valued chiefly as they might minister to this idol of his affections.

Reminiscences of Michael Kelly, of the King's Theatre, and Theatre Royal Drury Lane, including a Period of nearly Half a Century, with Original Anecdotes of many Distinguished Persons, Political, Literary, and Musical. New York. 1826. 8vo. pp. 424.

Mr Kelly has been a singer upon the British stage for the greater part of his life, but is principally known as the composer of a vast quantity of theatrical music. We found, to our astonish-

ment, that half the popular airs, marches, dances, &c. with which we have been delighted for the last quarter of a century, are due to his prolific muse. He enumerates no less than sixty-two dramatic pieces for which he composed the music, between the years 1797 and 1821; among which we recognise as old acquaintances, The Castle Spectre, Blue Beard, Pizarro, Cinderella, The Forty Thieves, The Bride of Abydos, and others of more or less note.

The craniologists have a bump for music as well as for poetry, and with good reason; men are destined for the former as much as for the latter. The *Nascitur, non fit*, is equally true of both. And if ever a man was born for one thing more than another, Mr Kelly was born to crotchets and quavers. He seems to have come into the world with a fiddlestick in his hand, and has literally played and sung through the long tune of life. He appears, honest man, to have had scarce a mortal idea of any thing in nature grander or more important than fine music,—except, indeed, good eating and drinking. The *primo buffo* of an opera company, if any body knows what that is, occupies a station in his view equal to that of some lordly potentate; a *prima donna* is the bright particular star of his adoration; a first rate tenor or bass voice is a possession of which kings might be proud; but a fine *soprano* is the *ne plus ultra* of human perfectibility. Mr Kelly's praise of his friends, or of any individuals, is always measured out according to music, and runs something in this way: He was a worthy man, and an excellent violin player; she was an exemplary wife and mother, and sang with a beautiful soprano voice; he was a good Christian, and played on the violoncello with great skill, &c.

But, although there is a great mass of sad trash in this volume, details which are little better than transcripts of playbills, or chronicles of the Green Room, we still find much that is amusing, and something instructive. It is a pleasant book to read; it is easy to run the eye along over the stuff that serves to fill in, and select that which is solid and worth reading. There are many amusing anecdotes, both of persons distinguished and of persons not distinguished, which serve to illustrate in one particular point of view the state of society in Europe, as compared with the state of it in this country; we mean in relation to the interest taken in the theatre, and the importance attached to it. We shall extract a few passages.

Mr Kelly gives the following account of the Roman critics.

The Romans assume that they are the most sapient critics in the world; they are certainly the most severe ones:—they have no medium,—all is delight or disgust. If asked whether a performance or a piece has been successful, the answer, if favourable, is, "è andato al settimo cielo,"—"it has ascended to the seventh heaven." If it has failed, they say, "è andato al abisso del inferno,—"it has sunk to the abyss of hell." The severest critics are the Abbés, who sit in the first row of the pit, each armed with a lighted wax taper in one hand, and a book of the opera in the other, and should any poor devil of a singer miss a word, they call out, "Bravo, bestia,—"Bravo, you beast."

It is customary for the composer of an opera, to preside at the piano-forte the first three nights of its performance, and a precious time he has of it in Rome. Should any passage in the music strike the audience as similar to one of another composer, they cry, "Bravo, il ladro,"—"Bravo, you thief;" or "Bravo, Paesiello! bravo, Sacchini!" If they suppose the passage stolen from them, "The curse of God light on him who first put a pen into your hand to write music!" This I heard said, in the Teatro del Altiberti, to the celebrated composer Gazzaniga, who was obliged to sit patiently at the piano-forte to hear the flattering commendation.

Cimarosa, who was their idol as a composer, was once so unfortunate as to make use of a movement in a comic opera, at the Teatro della Valle, which reminded them of one of his own, in an opera composed by him for the preceding carnival. An Abbé started up, and said, "Bravo, Cimarosa! you are welcome from Naples; by your music of to-night, it is clear you have neither left your trunk behind you, nor you old music; you are an excellent cook in hashing up old dishes!"

Poggi, the most celebrated buffo singer of his day, always dreaded appearing before those stony-hearted critics; however, tempted by a large sum, he accepted an engagement at the Teatro della Valle. He arrived in Rome some weeks previous to his engagement, hoping to make friends, and form a party in his favour; he procured introductions to the most severe and scurrilous, and thinking to find the way to their hearts, through their mouths, gave them splendid dinners daily. One of them, an Abbé, he selected from the rest, as his bosom friend and confidant; he fed, clothed, and supplied him with money; he confided to him his terrors at appearing before an audience so fastidious as the Romans. The Abbé assured him, that he had nothing to fear, as *his* opinion was looked up to by the whole bench of critics, and when *he* approved, none dare dissent.

The awful night for poor Poggi at length arrived; his *fidus Achates* took his usual seat, in his little locked-up chair, in the pit.

It was agreed between them, that he was to convey to Poggi, by signs, the feeling of the audience towards him;—if they approved, the Abbé was to nod his head; if the contrary, to shake it. When Poggi had sung his first song, the Abbé nodded, and cried, "Bravo! bravissimo!" but in the second act, Poggi became hoarse, and imperfect; the audience gave a gentle hiss, which disconcerted the affrighted singer, and made him worse: on this, his *friend* became outrageous, and standing up on his chair, after putting out his wax-light, and closing his book, he looked Poggi in the face, and exclaimed, "Signor Poggi, I am the mouth of truth, and thus declare, that you are decidedly the worst singer that ever appeared in Rome! I also declare, that you ought to be hooted off the stage for your impudence, in imposing on my simple and credulous good nature, as you have done." This produced roars of laughter, and poor Poggi retired, never to appear again, without even exclaiming, "Et tu Brute," which he might most appropriately have applied to his guardian crony.

In the early part of his life, our author was a performer in an Italian Opera Company at Vienna, and gives us several anecdotes of the emperor Joseph II. He thus accounts for the introduction of the opera in that city.

The Italian opera had for a length of time been discontinued at Vienna, and a first rate French company of comedians substituted. The emperor and his court were at Schoenbrunn, and the French company were performing there; apartments in the palace had been appointed for them, and a plentiful table allotted to their exclusive use. One day, while they were drinking their wine, and abusing it, the emperor passed by the *salle à manger*, which opened into the Royal Gardens. One of the gentlemen, with the innate modesty so peculiarly belonging to his nation and profession, jumped up from the table with a glass of wine in his hand, followed his Majesty, and said,—"Sire, I have brought your Majesty some of the trash which is given us by your purveyor, by way of wine; we are all disgusted at his treatment, and beg to request your Majesty to order something better, for it is absolutely impossible for us to drink it; he says it is Burgundy—do taste it, sire, I am sure you will not say it is."

The king, with great composure, tasted the wine: "I think it excellent," said His Majesty, "at least, quite good enough for *me*, though, perhaps, not sufficiently high-flavoured for *you* and your companions; in France, I dare say, you will get much better." He then turned on his heel, and sending immediately for the grand chamberlain, ordered the whole *corps dramatique* to be discharged, and expelled Vienna forthwith. They repented their folly, but His Majesty would never hear more of them, and their audacity caused the introduction of an Italian opera at Vienna.

Mr Kelly was for many years of his life an intimate friend and bottle companion of Mr Sheridan, of whom he tells a number of characteristic anecdotes.

On the 24th of May, in the same year, Mr Sheridan's celebrated play of "Pizarro," from Kotzebue, was produced; it was admirably acted, and I had the proud distinction of having my name joined with that of Mr Sheridan, in its production, having been selected by him to compose the whole of the music.

Expectation was on tip-toe; and strange as it may appear, "Pizarro" was advertised, and every box in the house taken, before the fourth act of the play was begun; nor had I one single word of the poetry for which I was to compose the music. Day after day, was I attending on Mr Sheridan, representing that time was flying; and that nothing was done for me. His answer uniformly was, "Depend upon it, my dear Mic, you shall have plenty of matter to go on with to-morrow;" but day after day, that morrow came not, which, as my name was advertised as the composer of the music, drove me half crazy. * * *

To my utter surprise, the next day, according to his own appointment, Mr Sheridan really came to dinner; after the cloth was removed, he proposed business. I had pen, ink, music, paper, and a small piano-forte (which the Duke of Queensberry had given me, and which he had been accustomed to take with him in his carriage, when he travelled), put upon the table with our wine. My aim was, to discover the situations of the different chorusses and the marches, and Mr Sheridan's ideas on the subject; and he gave them in the following manner:—"In the Temple of the Sun," said he, "I want the virgins of the sun, and their high priest, to chant a solemn invocation to their deity." I sang two or three bars of music to him, which I thought corresponded with what he wished, and marked them down. He then made a sort of rumbling noise with his voice (for he had not the smallest idea of turning a tune), resembling a deep gruff bow, wow, wow; but though there was not the slightest resemblance of an air in the noise he made, yet so clear were his ideas of effect, that I perfectly understood his meaning, though conveyed through the medium of a bow, wow, wow. Having done this, and pointed out their several situations, he promised me, faithfully, that I should have the poetry in a couple of days; and, marvellous to say, he actually did send me Cora's song, which Mrs Jordan sang; and the trio, sung by Mrs Crouch, Miss Decamp, and Miss Leak, "Fly away, time,"—which they made very effective. The poetry of the last, however, was written by my good friend Mr Richardson; the song really by himself. Having extracted these, I saw that it was perfectly ridiculous to expect the poetry of the chorusses from the author of

the play; and as I knew a literary gentleman, whose poverty, if not his will, would consent to assist me, I gave him Mr Sheridan's ideas, as I had caught them from his bow, wow, wows, and got him to write words to them, which he did very well; at least well enough to answer my purpose.

But if this were a puzzling situation for a composer, what will my readers think of that, in which the actors were left, when I state the fact, that, at the time the house was overflowing on the first night's performance, all that was written of the play was actually rehearsing, and that, incredible as it may appear, until the end of the fourth act, neither Mrs Siddons, nor Charles Kemble, nor Barrymore had all their speeches for the fifth? Mr Sheridan was up stairs, in the prompter's room, where he was writing the last part of the play, while the earlier parts were acting; and every ten minutes he brought down as much of the dialogue as he had done, piece-meal, into the green room, abusing himself and his negligence, and making a thousand winning and soothing apologies, for having kept the performers so long in such painful suspense.

One remarkable trait in Sheridan's character, was his penetrating knowledge of the human mind; for no man was more careful in his carelessness; he was quite aware of his power over his performers, and of the veneration in which they held his great talents; had he not been so, he would not have ventured to keep them (Mrs Siddons particularly) in the dreadful anxiety which they were suffering through the whole of the evening. Mrs Siddons told me, that she was in an agony of fright; but Sheridan perfectly knew that Mrs Siddons, C. Kemble, and Barrymore were quicker in study than any other performers concerned; and that he could trust them to be perfect in what they had to say, even at half an hour's notice. * * *

Such, however, were the delays during the first night's performance, that the play did not end, until within five minutes of midnight! The farce of "My Grandmother," was to follow, but the exhaustion of the audience was so complete, that, when the afterpiece commenced, only seventeen persons remained in the whole dress circle, and twenty-two in the pit. * * *

His quickness in writing may be judged by the circumstances I have already mentioned, relative to the state in which his "Pizarro" was produced, and he made a similar exertion at the time he brought out the "Critic." Two days previous to the performance, the last scene was not written. Dr Ford and Mr Linley, the joint proprietors, began to get nervous and fidgetty, and the actors were absolutely *au désespoir*, especially King, who was not only stage-manager, but had to play Puff; to him was assigned the duty of hunting down and worrying Sheridan about

the last scene; day after day passed, until, as I have just said, the last day but two arrived, and it made not its appearance.

At last, Mr Linley, who, being his father-in-law, was pretty well aware of his habits, hit upon a stratagem. A night rehearsal of "The Critic" was ordered, and Sheridan having dined with Linley, was prevailed upon to go; while they were on the stage, King whispered Sheridan that he had something particular to communicate, and begged he would step into the second green room. Accordingly, Sheridan went, and there found a table, with pens, ink, and paper, a good fire, an armed chair at the table, and two bottles of claret, with a dish of anchovy sandwiches. The moment he got into the room, King stepped out, and locked the door; immediately after which, Linley and Ford came up and told the author that, until he had written the scene, he would be kept where he was.

Sheridan took this decided measure in good part; he ate the anchovies, finished the claret, wrote the scene, and laughed heartily at the ingenuity of the contrivance. * * *

No man was ever more sore and frightened at criticism than he was, from his first outset in life. He dreaded the newspapers, and always courted their friendship. I have many times heard him say, "Let me but have the periodical press on my side, and there should be nothing in this country which I would not accomplish."

This sensitiveness of his, as regarded newspapers, renders the following anecdote rather curious:—After he had fought his famous duel, at Bath, with Colonel Matthews, on Mrs Sheridan's (Miss Linley's) account, an article of the most venomous kind was sent from Bath to Mr William Woodfall, the editor of the Public Advertiser, in London, to insert in that paper. The article was so terribly bitter against Sheridan, that Woodfall took it to him. After reading it, he said to Woodfall, "My good friend, the writer of this article has done his best to vilify me in all ways, but he has done it badly and clumsily. I will write a character of myself, as coming from an anonymous writer, which you will insert in your paper. In a day or two after, I will send you another article, as coming from another anonymous correspondent, vindicating me, and refuting most satisfactorily, point by point, every particle of what had been written in the previous one."

Woodfall promised that he would attend to his wishes; and Sheridan accordingly wrote one of the most vituperative articles against himself that mortal ever penned, which he sent to Woodfall, who immediately inserted it in his newspaper, as agreed upon.

Day after day passed; the calumnies which Sheridan had invented against himself, got circulation, and were in every body's mouths; and day after day did Mr Woodfall wait for the refutation which was to set all to rights, and expose the fallacy of the

the play; and as I knew a literary gentleman, whose poverty, if not his will, would consent to assist me, I gave him Mr Sheridan's ideas, as I had caught them from his bow, wow, wows, and got him to write words to them, which he did very well; at least well enough to answer my purpose.

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power of talent seldom or ever was congregated; but, alas! every one of those highly distinguished individuals (my valued friend George Colman excepted) have been taken from us.

With the names of all these persons we are not in this country familiar; the characters of some are sufficiently notorious. But what are we to think of the moral state of society, where men of eminent standing, peers, members of parliament are willing to have it recorded, that they assemble, to drink to excess in the house of a man living in open adultery with another man's wife. Indeed the picture which Mr Kelly inadvertently gives us of the moral standard of that part of the community in which he moves, is not very creditable. From his own account of himself, in a moral point of view, he is evidently such a person, as no man, who had a proper regard for his reputation, would think proper to associate with. And yet he seems perfectly unconscious that he has been guilty of any impropriety, much less criminality, and pleads guilty to only a few trifling excesses against temperance, of which the gout occasionally reminds him. He is, too, it seems, a royal favourite, and boasts of the royal grace, protection, and bounty. When we read such books, we feel as if we could not be sufficiently thankful, that the very constitution of our society prevents the existence of a class of persons, possessing such an unnatural rank, that the community, in spite of its better moral feelings, is forced to tolerate them in a disgraceful career of drinking, gaming, and debauchery.

Notices of the original and successive Efforts to Improve the Discipline of the Prison at Philadelphia, and to Reform the Criminal Code of Pennsylvania; with a few Observations on the Penitentiary System. By Roberts Vaux. Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 76.

This pamphlet is the production of a gentleman of Philadelphia, distinguished for his labours in the cause of humanity. It contains an account of the efforts which have been made by a benevolent society in that city, to improve the state of the prisons, and soften the rigours of the penal code of Pennsylvania. The penal code of the State, as established by its great founder, was distinguished for mildness. But during the long period of English dominion, the sanguinary laws of the mother country were intro-

duced with their profuse infliction of death, whipping, branding, &c. The evils which necessarily sprung from this system were heightened by the wretched condition of the prisons. A society for the relief of the prisoners was established in Philadelphia as early as the year 1776; but was soon dissolved, in consequence of the war with Great Britain. In the year 1787, a similar society was founded, with the name of "The Philadelphia Society for Relieving the Miseries of Public Prisons." Their immediate object was the relief of the prisoners confined, but their views extended to an examination of the effects produced by the existing system of penal law.

The condition in which they found the prison was shocking; but most of the jails in England and this country were at that time in nearly as bad a state. "In one common herd were kept by day and by night, prisoners of all ages, colours, and sexes. No separation was made of the most flagrant offender and convict from the prisoner who might perhaps be falsely suspected of some trifling misdemeanor; none of the old and hardened culprit from the youthful and trembling novice in crime; none even of the fraudulent swindler from the unfortunate, and possibly most estimable debtor; and, intermingled with all these, in one corrupt and corrupting assemblage, were to be found the disgusting object of popular contempt, smeared with filth from the pillory, the unhappy victim of the lash streaming with blood from the whipping-post, the half naked vagrant, the loathsome drunkard, the sick suffering with various bodily pains, and too often the manacled malefactor, whose precious hours of probation had been numbered by his earthly judge." The keeper was supposed to employ the prisoners in committing depredations upon the citizens, and was continued in office only because no one else desired so disagreeable a charge. This man did all in his power to thwart the Society's plans of inquiry and reformation; they however persisted, and by degrees awakened the attention of the citizens to the evils which they were endeavouring to remedy.

In the year 1786, a law had been enacted, directing, "that a certain description of convicts should be employed in cleaning the streets of the city, and repairing the roads of its neighbourhood," distinguished by shaven heads and an infamous dress. To prevent them from revenging the insults to which they were exposed, they were encumbered with iron collars and chains, and guarded by armed keepers. The evil consequences of this regulation soon attracted the notice of the Society, and induced them to present a memorial to the Legislature, setting forth the

advantages of private or even solitary labour. This memorial, by attracting the attention of the Legislature, was mainly conducive to the important improvements in prison discipline and the penal law, for which Pennsylvania has been since distinguished.

In the year 1790, the Legislature adopted a plan, which the Society had prepared, for the permanent improvement of prison discipline, and two years after, made such alterations in the penal code, as were necessary to give effect to the penitentiary system. In the year 1794, the Society carried on a correspondence with the executives of several of the other states, which led to the reformation of the penal law in various parts of the Union. Since the year 1800, they have made repeated applications to the Legislature, for the erection of buildings adapted to penitentiary purposes; as the old prison edifices have been found very inadequate. They have at length succeeded, and suitable edifices are now erecting at Pittsburg, and near Philadelphia. The labours of the Society are deserving of the highest praise. In their efforts to alleviate the distresses, and improve the characters of criminals. they have displayed a zeal and benevolence worthy of Howard. And by the introduction, to which they were chiefly instrumental, of the penitentiary system, they have become the benefactors, not of Pennsylvania merely, but of all parts of the Union, where it has been established.

Previously to the introduction of this system, the modes of punishment that had prevailed both in Pennsylvania and the other states, which have since followed her example, were death, whipping, branding, cropping, &c., and confinement without occupation in the common jail. In their stead, the penitentiary system substitutes confinement accompanied with hard labour, in prisons appropriated to convicts exclusively; abolishing the punishment of death in most cases, and the host of barbarous corporal punishments in all; classifying the degrees of guilt; and attempting by means of separation and strict discipline, to work a reform in the character of the criminal. Such, we believe, were the principles on which the system was established in Pennsylvania originally, and subsequently in New York, Maryland, Massachusetts, and other parts of the Union. It is true, that penitentiaries have since degenerated very much from their high character of schools for the reformation of the vicious, and have become little more than means of securing society, for a time, from the attacks of hardened offenders, and of compelling them to labour for their own support. Still, however, even in this condition, they are vastly superior to the old system, with its

profligate waste of life, its ignominious corporal punishments, and its indiscriminate mixture of the criminal, the accused, and the debtor, in the filth, idleness, and corruption of a common jail. The principal reasons why they have failed to answer the high expectations entertained respecting them, are, the insufficiency of the buildings in which the system has been tried, in point of size and construction, to admit the requisite separation of offenders, and the relaxation of strict discipline, with a view to the most profitable occupation of the prisoners. Those have been allowed to unite their skill and labour, who ought to have been kept separate, and indulgences have been granted, to induce them to exert themselves, inconsistent with a wholesome severity.

At the period of the establishment of the system in Pennsylvania, when the prison was sufficient for the accommodation of the convicts, and the principles of the institution strictly adhered to by its benevolent founders, "the prison was a school of reformation, and of the many who received the governor's pardon, not one returned a convict. At a later period, out of near two hundred persons, who had been recommended to, and pardoned by the governor, only four had returned." And the amount of crime in and about the city had greatly decreased. The reasons assigned in the pamphlet before us, for the diminished usefulness of the institution of late years, are fully sufficient to account for the fact, without throwing the blame on the system. These are the changes which the government of the penitentiary has undergone,—the division and extension of responsibility; the inadequate size of the prison, which was erected for the city and county of Philadelphia only, but since the reformation of the code, has been the receptacle of all the convicts of the State, thus rendering it impossible to make a proper classification of the offenders; the direction of the prisoner's labour to such branches of industry as would yield the largest profit, without any consideration of their fitness to the purposes of a penitentiary; and the frequent exercise of the power of pardon.

Similar circumstances undoubtedly have operated to diminish the good effects of the system in other parts of the Union. In our State, it has been almost paralysed for many years, by the crowded condition of the prison. In New York, its first results were like those in Pennsylvania, and its subsequent usefulness has suffered from corresponding causes. The prison, which was originally built to hold three hundred persons, afterwards contained more than double that number. A large part of the convicts could not be employed for want of room, and some of

the best of them were pardoned every month to make way for new convicts. This defect has since been remedied by the erection of a large *bridewell* in the city of New York, and a state prison at Auburn. These are said, by the governor, in his last speech to the Legislature, to be in an excellent condition. Another state prison is now erecting at Sing-sing, in Westchester county. Pennsylvania, also, as we have already observed, is supplying the want of suitable buildings, by the penitentiaries now erecting at Pittsburg and near Philadelphia. These two states have set a noble example to the rest of the Union. In both of them, the system was once fairly tried, with the best results; and their late efforts to restore its purity, and afford means for its operation, prove their conviction of its usefulness. Their example is most encouraging. It shows that the system is most valued where it is best known. We hope that the other states, and our own among the rest, will be roused to corresponding exertions.

Wherever the system is pursued steadily, according to the principles which experience has shown to be correct, there can be little doubt of its success. By success, we do not mean that all crimes will be prevented, nor all prisoners reformed; but that enough will be effected to justify the labour expended. The indulgence of extravagant expectations on this point, has been productive of much disappointment; and, what is worse, has rendered men sceptical as to the real advantages of the plan, and relaxed their efforts for its regulation and improvement. It is not contended that it is perfect, but only that it is much superior to the old mode of punishment, and affords the best means at present in our power for the prevention of crime. To effect this object, the old system relied simply on the principle of terror, the modern adds that of the criminal's reformation. And the same means which are used to restore him to virtue, are made instrumental in deterring others from offending. Confinement and hard labour are substituted in the room of death, scourging, branding, and mutilation. And it can hardly be doubted, that the change is for the better, even though we look no farther than to the relative influence of the two modes of punishment, in deterring from crime. As to the punishment of death, it is so abhorrent to the feelings of our community, and consequently the chance of escape, from the scrupulosity of courts, juries, and witnesses is so great, that we cannot believe the fear of it would operate so powerfully, as the certainty of a tedious confinement on reasonable proof of guilt. And as to the other painful and ignominious punishments which we have mentioned, we would

remark, that a criminal is generally a man of unbridled passions, and little sense of character. Pain and shame are less dreadful to him than restraint. His reckless habits generate a brutal hardihood, which bids defiance to corporal punishment, and depriving him of character render him insensible to shame. But restraint he most cordially hates and dreads. The want of self-control impels him to the commission of crime. And this impulse will be most effectually checked by the prospect of confinement and strict discipline.

But greater efficacy in the prevention of crime is by no means the only advantage attending the penitentiary system. It prevents the growth of that savage callousness among the lower classes, which springs from the frequent sight of public executions and corporal punishments. By confining the offender, it relieves society from the fear of his depredations and the pollution of his example; while the old system would have turned him loose, rendered doubly ferocious by the smart of bodily pain. It compels him to labour for his own support, instead of preying upon the spoils of his fellow men, and offers him the means of reformation, which, if properly applied, can hardly fail, in a majority of cases, of dismissing him a better man, than when he entered the prison. It may easily be shown, too, that this system produces a great saving of expense to the public. Our state prison, this last year, has supported itself, and left a balance of more than ten thousand dollars in favour of the commonwealth. And the state prison in the city of New York, Governor Clinton observes, in his last speech to the Legislature, would, probably, under judicious management, pay all its own expenses.

But, perhaps, it may be said, that this great amount of productive labour can be attained only by a departure from the strict discipline of a penitentiary. Be it so. The illustration is not essential to our argument. We maintain, that if the public were to pay the whole expense of the prisoners' support, still they would be great gainers in a pecuniary view. It has been truly said, that one thief out of prison costs the community more than ten within it. It is stated in the North American Review for April, 1820, that "in the town of Boston, which is as well governed, and as sharply watched as any city in the Union, it is supposed there are two thousand men and women, who live by profligacy, fraud, and felony; and that they obtain, in one way or another, at least one dollar per day each, making, in the whole, the enormous sum of seven hundred and thirty thousand dollars per annum, the twentieth part of which could be made to support the whole of them in the state prison at Charlestown."

It can hardly be denied then, that the advantages attending the penitentiary system are great. But it is vain to think of securing them without a steady adherence to its principles. Prisons must be erected of sufficient size and proper construction, to allow of the necessary separation of the convicts, during the hours of labour and repose. They must be properly prisons, places of punishment and not manufactories. The main object should not be to make the criminals pay the expense of their support, but the penalty of their crimes. The name of penitentiaries should be indicative of their character. The discipline should be such, as to make the prisoner heartily repent, that he ever committed the offence which subjected him to its rigours. But its strictness will necessarily be relaxed, and a proper separation of the convicts prevented, if the first object attended to, is to induce and enable them to make the most profitable use of their mechanical skill. Another requisite is, that the amount of punishment should be certain. The power of pardoning should be very sparingly exercised. Men should not enter prison, with the hope, that a short period of pretended reformation will strike off years from the term of their confinement.

The state of the county gaols is a most serious obstacle in the way of any system which aims at the diminution of crime. The same indiscriminate mixture prevails in them, which has proved to be so noxious in our state penitentiaries. The convict who is undergoing the sentence of the law, and the accused who are waiting for trial, are allowed to associate with one another, and, in many instances, with the debtors. No employment is furnished, and gambling and drinking are tolerated. So that they prove, as might be expected, schools of vice, and their inmates are soon qualified for admission into the state prisons. When proper measures are taken for their reformation, when the principles of the penitentiary system are strictly pursued in our state prisons, then we may hope to witness a diminution in the number of offences; but till then, they will go on steadily increasing with the increase of our wealth and population.

In the observations which have been made, we have considered confinement, with hard labour and the classification of offenders, according to their different degrees of guilt, as the principles of the penitentiary system. For they have hitherto been its distinguishing characteristics. Lately, however, an opinion has prevailed in Pennsylvania, that solitary confinement without employment has superior advantages. And the experiment is to be tried in the prison now erecting near Philadelphia. We are not

sufficiently acquainted with the details of the plan to form any judgment as to its probable effects. The principal objections seem to be, the danger of producing extreme depression of spirits, and even derangement of mind, by an injudicious excess in the degree of punishment, and the expense of supporting the establishment without any aid from the criminal's labour. If properly managed, it seems likely to become an effectual means of punishment and reformation. It has long been used in prisons, as a means of keeping order and subduing refractory spirits. It appears to us doubtful, however, whether it will prove superior to the former system. That was productive of striking advantages, while the practice accorded with the theory, in the hands of its beneficent founders. It has failed, because it has degenerated, and the reformed system may experience the same fate.

MISCELLANY.

PHILOSOPHY OF LANGUAGE.

(*Concluded from page* 151.)

It may not be uninteresting to notice some of the causes which have led to this neglect of the early education of children in the import and use of language.

Among these, the difficulty of descending to the true simplicity of the subject is not the least. How few persons of well cultivated minds know how to talk to children. Progress in knowledge depends very much on the power of generalization, and this power, after having been long in exercise, begets modes of thinking and of expression which are far beyond the reach of the infantile mind, that attends mostly to particulars. "Honesty is the best policy" is a proverb, which we, who have acquired maturity of thought and of language, readily comprehend. But what a number of particulars are involved in this short sentence. Follow out the trains of thought which it will, on a little reflection, produce, and see through what a wide field of action and events and circumstances they lead. The child's mind must pass through all or some of these trains of thought before it can arrive at the meaning of the proverb. To excite them, by a proper induction of particulars, is the difficulty which, strange as it may seem, even the philosopher is often at a loss how to overcome. To do this he must for the moment lay aside all the loftiness of thought and splendour of imagination and

scope of language, to which he has long been accustomed, and go back to the dawn of his now mighty intellect, and become again a little child; a task of no easy accomplishment; a talent which comparatively but few of the higher order of minds possess.

To this intrinsic difficulty of the subject may be added its apparent lowliness. To prattle and play with children serves very well to fill up a vacant hour; nay, to the parent it may afford one of the sweetest enjoyments of life. But seriously to exercise all the patience and perseverance which are necessary to carry these plans into effect, this seems too humble an employment for those who have long been engaged in the profound labours of science, the fascinating pleasures of taste, the elaborate performances of art, or the weighty business and projects of human affairs. And yet in truth what occupation can be a nobler one, than to analyze the first principles of the human mind; to divine and prosecute the best modes of planting and nurturing the seeds of thought, of cherishing and unfolding the buds of genius; of expanding and leading to maturity those intellectual fruits which the frost of death withers; but which are to bloom undecaying through the spring-time of eternity.

Another obstacle in the way of promoting any reform in the early education of youth in language, is, the popular objection, that nature herself has pointed out the best mode; that art cannot mend it; that children will take their own way in learning the elements of speech; and that it does no good to attempt to hasten to maturity, what must of necessity be gradual in its growth. But you do not leave nature to do her own work. You do not let your children rise to manhood like the forest-tree. You pursue modes of instruction; you give them example; you lead them by the force of imitation to the use of language as yourself and others around them use it; you even go so far as to send them to school at a very early age, if for no other purpose at least to save yourself some care and trouble. Now the true question is, not whether nothing or something shall be done, but whether what is done is susceptible of no improvement. There is a mode of teaching children language, a very old and almost universal mode; you have carelessly adopted it; are you sure there cannot be devised a better mode? Is human invention, which is now astonishing the world with its discoveries in almost every other field of human effort, to be considered absolutely impotent and useless in that of education? Will fathers take more pains with their grounds than with their children, and devote more time and research to know how to make their orchard-trees yield a few more and fairer apples, than to train up the "olive plants which are around their table" to the production of richer and more abundant fruit! Will philosophers subject matter to all possible varieties of forms and combinations, in order to elicit some new process of its motion or action for the temporal

benefit of man; and yet neglect to ascertain the principles, and cultivate to their highest degree of improvement the operations of that mind, which is the very agent to which they are indebted for all the truths which they discover, and all the wonders which they perform. Statesmen lay the monuments of their glory in cutting canals, that what administers to the bodily wants or comforts of their countrymen, may find its way more easily and at a cheaper rate from one part of the nation to the other; and will they leave the fountains of human thought unexplored, and the stream of human intellect, in all its earlier course, to grope its tardy passage through the thousand obstables, which error, sanctioned by custom, opposes to its broader and deeper tide? Then we do not act up to the dignity of our nature. We prefer matter to mind; the body to the soul; time to eternity.

There is one other cause tending to produce the low state of improvement in the early education of children, that yet remains to be mentioned—the desire of accomplishing the object in the most economical way. A cheap teacher, and a large school, will do very well for very young children. As well might you say, that an inferior mason and bad materials are adequate to the laying of that foundation on which you hope to erect a great and permanent edifice. If the principles laid down in the former part of this essay are correct, the very time to have your children under the care of skilful and accomplished teachers, is when they begin to learn the import and use of language. For errors committed then will hardly be quite got rid of through life. Their great task afterwards will be, not so much to learn, as to unlearn; and, perhaps, they will have always to lament the vague ideas which they attached at first to language, the incorrect associations of thought which they formed, the confused modes of thinking which they adopted, and the unmeaning or vulgar phraseology which they acquired. The experience of every one arrived to mature age, must have convinced him of the truth of these remarks. How thoroughly soever his mind may have been disciplined by study, and his judgment rendered profound by experience, or his imagination and taste formed to be classically correct by cultivation; the impressions of his childhood cling to him with a force, and revive with a freshness, almost irresistible. The old meaning of words, which the school dame taught him, and all her illustrations, and stories, and examples to render these words intelligible, start up in his remembrance at times when he least expects or wishes for them, and influence his thoughts, and perhaps his expressions, in spite of himself. It is in mind as in manners, an awkward trick of children is sometimes carried through life; not to be counteracted by associating with the most refined society, or even by acquiring a simple elegance of deportment.

If these remarks have weight as to the intellectual, how much more so with reference to the moral character of man. Whatever may be our opinion in regard to the moral sense, how far it may be instinctive, or how much it depends on cultivation; all will agree, that, without instruction in moral and religious truth, man would be grossly ignorant of his duty. This instruction must be communicated by language. Of course, it becomes infinitely important, that those terms which are used to convey moral and religious ideas should be well understood. If children are left to attach a false or vague meaning to these terms, who can calculate the influence that it will of necessity have upon all their thoughts and feelings on moral and religious subjects. Nay, it goes to form their character through life. The man may, by reflection and study, correct the errors of his head, which have grown out of the misconceptions of childhood; but these misconceptions have already moulded in a great degree his affections, his desires, and purposes, and he finds it a mighty task to subdue the waywardness of his heart.

A child asks his teacher the meaning of the word "proper," who, having himself no correct ideas attached to the term, tells the little inquirer, that "proper" means such conduct as he sees in polite and fashionable people. The parent taking for granted, that the boy is making admirable progress at school in the spelling-book, and that he will soon be able to read (that is, to pronounce correctly) in the Bible, and finding, too, that he can even repeat some definitions of very hard words in the Dictionary, is at no trouble to ascertain how far he is learning to think correctly; whether he attaches true or false ideas to the words which he uses, or in fact any ideas at all. The father, to be sure, talks to him often, with affection and earnestness, on the importance of his growing up to be a virtuous and useful man, and hopes his conduct will always be "proper;" that is, according to the boy's conception, derived from his oracle, the schoolmaster, that he will act as fashionable and polite people do. It is quite possible, these are the very people in the village, whose example the father would least wish his son to follow. What care, what skill, what patience, what ingenuity, what precision ought to be used in teaching children such terms, as serve to form, and perhaps to fix forever their impressions with regard to moral and religious truths. Are the character and the talents of those, to whom this important task is assigned, of little consequence? Is the cheapness of the school its highest recommendation? Miserable economy! We employ, indeed, for trifling wages, those whom, perhaps, we had better never employ at all; at the sacrifice, too, of wasting the time, and toil, and patience of our offspring; and, what is still worse, at the risk of their imbibing errors, which no expense of labour can afterwards remove. A delusion, the folly of which is only equalled by its sad effects.

UTILITY OF EXERCISE.

Spontaneous exercise has a powerful effect on the organs and functions of life; and this will not seem surprising, if we reflect, that the parts which are destined to move the animal machine, are more voluminous than all the organs which perform the offices of the organic, or interior life. Thus the muscles of the neck, back, loins, and extremities, form a larger mass than all the organs which carry on the work of digestion, respiration, circulation, secretion, &c. In the natural state of man, the will has entire sway over the locomotive organs. In bringing into successive and regular action the muscles which bend and extend the limbs, in moderating and accelerating their contractions, we are enabled to walk, run, leap, dance, &c. But these voluntary efforts cannot be continued without impressing on the interior organs of nutrition and assimilation, a portion of the muscular energy and action. It may be regarded as a remarkable phenomenon, that the muscles of volition are so intimately associated with the organs which carry on the work of nutrition, respiration, the various secretions, excretions, &c., that the former cannot be brought into methodical action, without exciting and invigorating the latter. Hence exercise will be rational and useful in proportion to the regularity with which it is taken, and its accurate adaptation to the strength and condition of him who takes it.

It is sometimes taken in a violent and irregular manner, after long intermissions, and is then condemned as useless, or even pernicious, merely because somebody has been indiscreet enough to abuse it. It may again be so inert, as to be worthless,—as lounging through the street, in so sluggish and slovenly a manner, that if the noble organs within were called on to decide, they could not tell whether the attempt to exercise were affected or real.

That the organs of voluntary motion have an intimate relation with all the vital organs of the living fabric, there can be no doubt; for, if we divide the trunk of the nerves sent to one of the limbs, the part so deprived of the nervous influence, soon loses the power of moving, and becomes paralytic. On the other hand, when the brain, the source of the nerves, is excited, the nervous power is augmented, and muscular action is more energetic, and more fully developed. A man, now tranquil and serene, suddenly hears some piece of good news,—he can no longer remain silent and still; he rises, advances, retreats, and feels the necessity of expending in speech and motion the abundance of life and animation, with which his nerves and muscles have just been replenished. The muscular system is not less nearly allied to the circulating apparatus. From the moment the communication between the heart and muscles is interrupted by a ligature or otherwise, their contractile power is destroyed. But if the arterial current flows with accelerated

advantages of private or even solitary labour. This memorial, by attracting the attention of the Legislature, was mainly conducive to the important improvements in prison discipline and the penal law, for which Pennsylvania has been since distinguished.

In the year 1790, the Legislature adopted a plan, which the Society had prepared, for the permanent improvement of prison discipline, and two years after, made such alterations in the penal code, as were necessary to give effect to the penitentiary system. In the year 1794, the Society carried on a correspondence with the executives of several of the other states, which led to the reformation of the penal law in various parts of the Union. Since the year 1800, they have made repeated applications to the Legislature, for the erection of buildings adapted to penitentiary purposes; as the old prison edifices have been found very inadequate. They have at length succeeded, and suitable edifices are now erecting at Pittsburg, and near Philadelphia. The labours of the Society are deserving of the highest praise. In their efforts to alleviate the distresses, and improve the characters of criminals. they have displayed a zeal and benevolence worthy of Howard. And by the introduction, to which they were chiefly instrumental, of the penitentiary system, they have become the benefactors, not of Pennsylvania merely, but of all parts of the Union, where it has been established.

Previously to the introduction of this system, the modes of punishment that had prevailed both in Pennsylvania and the other states, which have since followed her example, were death, whipping, branding, cropping, &c., and confinement without occupation in the common jail. In their stead, the penitentiary system substitutes confinement accompanied with hard labour, in prisons appropriated to convicts exclusively; abolishing the punishment of death in most cases, and the host of barbarous corporal punishments in all; classifying the degrees of guilt; and attempting by means of separation and strict discipline, to work a reform in the character of the criminal. Such, we believe, were the principles on which the system was established in Pennsylvania originally, and subsequently in New York, Maryland, Massachusetts, and other parts of the Union. It is true, that penitentiaries have since degenerated very much from their high character of schools for the reformation of the vicious, and have become little more than means of securing society, for a time, from the attacks of hardened offenders, and of compelling them to labour for their own support. Still, however, even in this condition, they are vastly superior to the old system, with its

profligate waste of life, its ignominious corporal punishments, and its indiscriminate mixture of the criminal, the accused, and the debtor, in the filth, idleness, and corruption of a common jail. The principal reasons why they have failed to answer the high expectations entertained respecting them, are, the insufficiency of the buildings in which the system has been tried, in point of size and construction, to admit the requisite separation of offenders, and the relaxation of strict discipline, with a view to the most profitable occupation of the prisoners. Those have been allowed to unite their skill and labour, who ought to have been kept separate, and indulgences have been granted, to induce them to exert themselves, inconsistent with a wholesome severity.

At the period of the establishment of the system in Pennsylvania, when the prison was sufficient for the accommodation of the convicts, and the principles of the institution strictly adhered to by its benevolent founders, "the prison was a school of reformation, and of the many who received the governor's pardon, not one returned a convict. At a later period, out of near two hundred persons, who had been recommended to, and pardoned by the governor, only four had returned." And the amount of crime in and about the city had greatly decreased. The reasons assigned in the pamphlet before us, for the diminished usefulness of the institution of late years, are fully sufficient to account for the fact, without throwing the blame on the system. These are the changes which the government of the penitentiary has undergone,—the division and extension of responsibility; the inadequate size of the prison, which was erected for the city and county of Philadelphia only, but since the reformation of the code, has been the receptacle of all the convicts of the State, thus rendering it impossible to make a proper classification of the offenders; the direction of the prisoner's labour to such branches of industry as would yield the largest profit, without any consideration of their fitness to the purposes of a penitentiary; and the frequent exercise of the power of pardon.

Similar circumstances undoubtedly have operated to diminish the good effects of the system in other parts of the Union. In our State, it has been almost paralysed for many years, by the crowded condition of the prison. In New York, its first results were like those in Pennsylvania, and its subsequent usefulness has suffered from corresponding causes. The prison, which was originally built to hold three hundred persons, afterwards contained more than double that number. A large part of the convicts could not be employed for want of room, and some of

Seemingly down a gulf, from which I struggled
To lift me; but the ever backward plunge
Hurried me, like the rushing of a torrent,
Farther and farther from all hope of light
Or the sweet face of Heaven. O! had a star,
A single lonely star, one of the smallest,
That scarcely twinkles, when the winter's night
Is clearest, and there is no moon to shade
The lesser lights; and the bright evening planet
Has set, and Jove not mounted yet his throne,
And made his vassels dim;—had such a star
Broke out a moment, from the thick obscure,
To tell me where to look upon the sky,
And, in that utter void, forget not where
To wait the dawning, I had then had hope,
And not been wholly desolate; and yet
None greeted me, but all was like a chaos,
After its waves have settled to a calm,
And even the swell, that follows on the storm,
Subsided into stillness.

Then, methought,
I heard a sound, like the far roar of winds
Amid the forest oaks, when the whole sea
Of branches tosses, as the coming tempest
Stoops from its car of clouds, and scourges them,
Till the wide wilderness bows to the dust
Before its anger. Such a hollow sound
Rolled onward, and yet louder every moment,
Seemed like the rush of myriad wings, or sweep
Of mailed horsemen, when the beaten plain
Trembles, and, in the mid encounter, wide
Their armour shocks and rings. A breathless fear,
A terror that had winged my flying feet,
Had not the deeper dread of what I knew not
Beyond the point I stood on, held me fixed
And rooted to the ground, and with it, too,
A mingled feeling of desire and hope,
Wakened me from my trance, and turned me whence
The rushing came. Methought the darkness seemed
To fade, and from its womb a glimmering rose
Pale and uncertain, as the flitting glance
Of moonlight through a storm. Anon it took
More fixedness, and then it reared itself
Into a dreamy shape, a wavering form,
Hovering in mist far on the sleeping waves,

When night is deep, and all the light in heaven
Just gives a visible outline, so that earth
Seems like a land of shadows. Then it stood
Before me, and a chill and spectral glare
Invested it, and as it onward drew,
With ominous bearing, I could dimly catch
Traces of human likeness, yet it seemed
More like a moon-struck ghost, than living thing,
For there was not a motion in its limbs,
Gesture, or step, but it seemed borne along
On the swift tide of air—its glaring eyeballs
Rolled not, and had no meaning, but they stared,
Like a blind statue's, with everted lids,
Glassy and cold; and from its bloodless lips
There seemed to come no voice, for they were still,
And yet stood open, like the last fixed gasp
Of dissolution. Soon the vision neared me,
And then I heard a low and muttering sound,
Like the faint utterance of forbidden charms,
When, even herself in fear, the sorceress
Evokes the shades of hell, or calls the spirits,
Whose dwelling is in air. Then as I heard it,
I started and looked round me; for no breath
Quivered upon those ashy lips, and yet
I knew the voice came from them, and it sounded
Hollow, as from the tomb. "Creature of earth,
Child of despair and fear, of doubt and madness,
I bid thee follow me; the spell is on thee,
And where I go, thou must perforce attend me;
And I will show thee such unearthly things,
As will not leave thee to thy dying day,
But haunt thee, like the secret consciousness
Of undiscovered crime." He said; and then
Turned from me, and went moving through the darkness,
Lofty and proud. At once I felt myself
Lifted, as by the sweeping of a tempest,
And borne along so rapidly, my breath
And sense were lost. Awhile I knew of nothing,
But that my flight was onward; then my brain
Grew wonted to the change, and fixed itself,
So that all objects took a startling clearness,
Though seen in deepest shade. A magic world
Seemed bursting into being, wondrous, wild,
Majestic, beautiful, obscure, and dark,
Then bright to dazzling. Countless images
Crowded before me, till the eye was weary

In looking onward through the living sea,
That rolled upon me, like the toppling waves
Heaved from the womb of ocean, surge on surge,
To burst upon the shore. I hurried by them,
And back they rushed behind me, like the hills,
And groves, and towns, and spires, when borne along
The bosom of some mighty stream by winds
That send the vessel through the frothy waves,
Like a shaft winged with fate. It were a tale
Too high for mortal utterance, to tell
The shapes that met me, and they ravished me
With such unearthly joy, the vision melted
In its own fervour, and I found myself
Alone in darkness.

P.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

The Works of Anna Lætitia Barbauld. With a Memoir by Lucy Aikin. In two volumes. 1826. 12mo. pp. 324 and 372.

This very neat edition of Mrs Barbauld's Works, lately published in New York, contains most of the pieces found in the last English edition, together with those of a new volume, entitled "A Legacy for Young Ladies," first published this year in London, and, of course, never before offered to readers in this country. Mrs Barbauld's writings, except the Legacy for Young Ladies, which has been prepared for publication by Miss Aikin since the author's death, have been often before the American public in different forms, and are two well known to require any analysis or exposition of their character from us. We hope and believe, moreover, that they are too highly appreciated to derive any advantage from our praise. We cannot, however, omit the opportunity now offered to us, of bearing testimony to the peculiar excellence of all that Mrs Barbauld has ever written, with the design to subserve the purposes of early education. Possessed of a discriminating mind, and having been herself a long time devoted to the duties of a teacher, she was singularly qualified, both by nature and by habit, to do justice to a subject in which she took so lively an interest.

Lest our readers should not all of them have an opportunity to study Mrs Barbauld's writings on education, we will quote a paragraph or two, which we think are particularly striking. Speaking of the utter impotence of *precepts* where they are constantly vio-

lated by the preceptors themselves, and their influence counteracted by every thing that surrounds the little learner, she says, addressing herself more particularly to parents:

You are sensible of the advantages of simplicity of diet; and you make a point of restricting that of your child to the plainest food, for you are resolved that he shall not be nice. But this plain food is of the choicest quality, prepared by your own cook; his fruit is ripened from your walls; his cloth, his glasses, all the accompaniments of the table, are such as are only met with in families of opulence: the very servants who attend him are neat, well dressed, and have a certain air of fashion. You may call this simplicity; but I say he will be nice,—for it is a kind of simplicity which only wealth can attain to, and which will subject him to be disgusted at all common tables. Besides, he will from time to time partake of those delicacies which your table abounds with; you yourself will give him of them occasionally; you would be unkind if you did not: your servants, if good-natured, will do the same. Do you think you can keep the full stream of luxury running by his lips, and he not taste it? Vain imagination!

I would not be understood to inveigh against wealth, or against the enjoyments of it; they are real enjoyments, and allied to many elegancies in manners and in taste;—I only wish to prevent unprofitable pains and inconsistent expectations.

You are sensible of the benefit of early rising; and you may, if you please, make it a point that your daughter shall retire with her governess, and your son with his tutor, at the hour when you are preparing to see company. But their sleep, in the first place, will not be so sweet and undisturbed amidst the rattle of carriages, and the glare of tapers glancing through the rooms, as that of the village child in his quiet cottage, protected by silence and darkness; and, moreover, you may depend upon it, that as the coercive power of education is laid aside, they will in a few months slide into the habitudes of the rest of the family, whose hours are determined by their company and situation in life. You have, however, done good as far as it goes; it is something gained, to defer pernicious habits, if we cannot prevent them.

These thoughts may help to dissipate the wonder, which many seem to feel, that children do not more dutifully follow good advice; and, perhaps, prevent parents from charging human nature with much perversity, when the fault of it is almost wholly their own. On the other hand, speaking of the influence of example, Mrs Barbauld says:

Do we see a father who is diligent in his profession, domestic in his habits, whose house is the resort of well-informed, intelligent people—a mother whose time is usefully filled, whose attention to her duties secures esteem, and whose amiable manners attract affection? Do not be solicitous, respectable couple, about the moral education of your offspring! do not be uneasy because you cannot surround them with the apparatus of books and systems; or fancy you must retire from the world to devote yourselves to their improvement. In your world they are brought up much better than they could be under any plan of factitious education which you could provide for them: they will imbibe

affection from your caresses; taste from your conversation; urbanity from the commerce of your society; and mutual love from your example. Do not regret that you are not rich enough to provide tutors and governors, to watch his steps with sedulous and servile anxiety, and furnish him with maxims it is morally impossible he should act upon when grown up. Do not you see how seldom this over culture produces its effect, and how many shining and excellent characters start up every day, from the bosom of obscurity, with scarcely any care at all?

But Mrs Barbauld excels in the practical part of education not less than in the theory, if, indeed, she can be said to have any theory. No writer has more successfully blended amusement with instruction for young readers than she; and no one within our knowledge has known how to adapt both thoughts and words to the capacities of young children so well. For her juvenile Lessons, if for nothing else, she will always be held in grateful remembrance by all parents and instructers who are interested in developing the infant mind.

A Book for New Hampshire Children; in Familiar Letters from a Father. Second edition, revised and corrected. Exeter. 1826. 18mo. pp. 108.

Children should first be instructed concerning those things which are near them. These principally excite the interest of their parents and associates; and most of the conversation which they daily hear, relates to them. The facilities for understanding what relates to the geography, the manners and customs, the arts and occupations of one's own town or state, are vastly greater than for acquiring similar information concerning remote countries. Children need all these facilities, to render their progress in knowledge so apparent to themselves, that the satisfaction of having learned, will compensate for the exertions which learning requires.

These remarks, however trite they may appear, contain a principle which is too little regarded in our schools, and in our books for children. We are, therefore, pleased whenever we see a teacher labouring to impart to young children a knowledge of common things, instead of attempting to show the extent of his own researches, by analyzing subjects remote from their experience, and their sphere of observation.

The author of this little book, has succeeded well in making his letters interesting and intelligible. They treat of geography, statistics, history, and, in short, of whatever is most useful for the children of New Hampshire to know concerning their own state. Moral and religious instruction is interspersed in a very simple and parental manner. The book contains a small map of the

State, neatly executed; but the typography of the work is not equal to its merits.

We think it highly desirable that a work on a similar plan should be furnished for each of the United States; and we take the liberty of suggesting to the author of this little volume, the propriety of composing one for the children of Massachusetts.

INTELLIGENCE.

The "Forest Sanctuary," by Mrs Hemans. Mrs Hemans has a new work on the eve of publication, to be entitled the "Forest Sanctuary." It is the history of a Spanish exile, who flies from the religious persecutions of his own country, and takes refuge in the forests of America.

Fellenberg School. A school, resembling, in some respects, that of Fellenberg in Switzerland, was established two years since at Windsor, Connecticut, by Messrs Stebbins and Sill. We have read an exposition of the plan and purposes of this institution, lately published by its conductors, and think that it cannot fail to become eminently useful. The course of study pursued in the seminary is designed to occupy "two or three years, according to the age and acquirements of the pupil."

"Our school," say the conductors, "was principally designed to educate young men for the active employments of life. The course of study pursued, embraces the fundamental branches of an English education, the Latin Language, Linear Drawing, Geography, History, Natural Philosophy, Algebra, Geometry, and Trigonometry in its various applications, Book-keeping, and the Natural Sciences so far as the tastes and time of our pupils shall render it advisable. * *

"Our mode of instruction varies with the different classes and subjects attended to. We depend much in all, and in some branches entirely, upon oral instruction. We put but few books into the hands of our pupils, choosing rather to give them a thorough knowledge of a few studies, than to divert their attention by a great variety. We think it, indeed, of importance, that the studies pursued be such as are of direct utility in the pursuits of life; but of much greater importance, that habits of close application, and unyielding perseverance in study be acquired."

Mouth of the Niger. From the information which Lieutenant Clapperton obtained in his late travels in Africa, he considers it certain, that the Niger terminates in the Atlantic ocean, in the Bights of Benin and Biafsa.

Gaming in Paris. It is estimated, that the sums hazarded at the gaming-tables of Paris, amount to three hundred and fifty millions of francs per annum; and the state derives an income of eight millions from these scandalous institutions.

Cannon Founding. Messrs Gay-Lussac and D'Arcet, members of the French Academy, have been lately making some experiments upon cannon founding. It is said to require only a few parts of iron in the alloy, to double the force of resistance.

Curious Fact. In January last, as the Clyde, an English ship, was sailing along the coast of Africa, the sails were observed to be covered with a brownish sand, the particles of which being examined by a microscope, were found to be extremely minute. Some of the sails being unbent, clouds of dust escaped from them, on their flapping against the masts. The wind had blown fresh during the night previous, and the nearest land to windward was the African coast, six hundred miles distant. May not the seeds of many plants, found in remote and newly-formed islands, have been thus conveyed?

Northern Antiquities. A Society of Ancient Northern Literature has just been formed at Copenhagen. They intend to publish, in the original language, but with a Latin translation, a number of very old Icelandic manuscripts, which, it is expected, will throw great light on the history of the North.

Counterfeit Ancient Coins. A German journal, the Morgenblatt, has published a list of ancient Eastern coins, regularly counterfeited in Smyrna, and of those of the Western Empire, also, counterfeited systematically in Germany.

Funds for Religious Purposes. British and Foreign Bible Society, over ninety-three thousand pounds; the Church Mission Society, over forty-five thousand; the London Missionary, over forty thousand; the Wesleyan, over thirty-eight thousand; the Baptist Mission, nearly sixteen thousand; the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, over sixty-two thousand; for Propagating the Gospel, over thirty-two thousand; the Jews' Society, over thirteen thousand.

English Silk Manufactures. In Taunton [England] there are about a thousand silk looms, and two hundred in the vicinity. Each loom is computed to give employment to two persons. The annual returns of the silk trade in this town, may be estimated at not less than one hundred and fifty thousand pounds. The wages alone are about a thousand pounds a week. The trade is at present in so prosperous a state, that nothing but the want of suitable houses for the tradesmen employed, prevents its being doubled.

Mammoth Moth. A Madras journal describes a moth, found near Aracan, of such extraordinary dimensions, as to measure ten inches from the tip of one wing to the tip of the other, and also beautiful in colours.

Arabian Armour. Fragments of Arabian armour have been dug up in a field near Tours, in France. These remains are described as being of very beautiful workmanship in steel and silver, and are conjectured to be of the time of the Sultan Abderame, defeated by Charles Martel.

German Libraries. The German libraries surpass in number and richness those of any other country in Europe. The library of Vienna contains three hundred thousand volumes; that of Dresden, two hundred and twenty thousand; Munich, four hundred thousand; Breslau, one hundred and sixty thousand; Göttingen, three hundred thousand. It is calculated, that one hundred and fifty public libraries in that country, contain three million one hundred and thirty three thousand printed volumes, besides manuscripts and pamphlets.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

AGRICULTURE.

A Geological Survey of the Environs of Philadelphia, performed by the order of the Philadelphia Society for Promoting Agriculture. By G. Froost, M. D. With a Geological Map. Philadelphia.

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REVIEWS.

An Essay on Equity in Pennsylvania. By ANTHONY LAUSSAT, Jr., Student of Law, Member of the Law Academy of Philadelphia. Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 160.

THIS highly respectable dissertation is an academic task of a student of law in Philadelphia. We feel quite sure, no one would suspect, either from the manner or the matter of the work, that such was the fact. The industrious research, which every page of it exhibits, the judicious compilation of authorities contained in it, and the views, in general, sound and well matured, which distinguish it, are such as an older jurist and a riper scholar need not be unwilling to acknowledge. As a legal treatise, its value is limited in some degree; both because it is chiefly confined to the consideration of equity law in Pennsylvania, and because the chancery jurisdiction, which is exercised by the courts of that State, is exceedingly restricted. For its completeness and accuracy, therefore, as an abridgment of local jurisprudence, we assume not to vouch. Being printed, however, under the direction of the learned principals of the Philadelphia Law Academy, and having their particular testimony to its merits, we cannot entertain a doubt of its being faithful and correct in those details, of which we shall not undertake to judge.

We consider the publication very creditable to the school in which it was produced, and an earnest of the increasing usefulness of that institution and of others of the same character. Mr Du Ponceau's tract upon Jurisdiction, and the pieces appended to it, were incontrovertible proofs of the thorough, systematic

course of juridical education, pursued in the academy over which that diligent and ingenious scholar and profound lawyer presides. And the dissertation before us, by Mr Laussat, a pupil of the institution, must tend to confirm the favourable impression it has already made on the public mind.

It was the sensible remark of the great Roman orator, who understood that art so well in theory which he practised so admirably in the forum and the senate, that to write much was among the surest methods of acquiring skill in accomplished spoken eloquence. *Stilus optimus et præstantissimus dicendi effector et magister.* No exercise more effectually systematizes and fixes the thoughts than this, communicating to the speaker a certainty of conception and precision of argument, without which mere readiness of mind could seldom create an orator. And without practice in composition, extemporaneous address would be apt to degenerate into unfinished and irregular loquacity. For, as Cicero further observes, it is by uniting the habit of elaborate composition to the habit of animated public speaking, that the latter is adorned with all the beauty, facility, harmony, and perfection of a polished style. And the principle is peculiarly applicable to forensic oratory in our own country and our own times, where so wide a sphere of argument and authority must often be embraced by the advocate, and where exactness and order are indispensably necessary. Hence we deem the composition of legal dissertations the most useful course which the student can adopt, to arrange, and to impress upon the mind, the results of the study of jurisprudence; and we are very confident that the recollections of all, who have tried the experiment, will bear witness to the truth of our assertion.

Mr Laussat expresses an opinion decidedly favourable to the union of equity and common law jurisdiction in the same tribunal; and as this question has been much discussed in this country, we extract a part of his remarks on the subject, as a specimen of his manner.

This point has been frequently agitated, and has caused much difference of opinion. The learned Bacon, who flourished when courts of equity were in their infancy, and when their powers first began to grow formidable to those of law, gives his opinion for the separation. "Apud nonnullos receptum est, ut jurisdictio quæ decernit secundum æquum et bonum, atque illa altera quæ procedit secundum jus strictum, iisdem curiis deputentur; apud alios autem, ut diversis; omnino placet curiarum separatio. Neque enim conservabitur distinctio casuum, si fiat commixtio jurisdictionum:

sed arbitrium legem tandem trahet." The authority of Bacon is certainly of the highest class; yet it must be considered that he was a great admirer of the Roman system of jurisprudence, the only one which in his day was known to have reached any high degree of perfection. The common law, by falling into the hands of subtle dialecticians, had become an artificial science, and Westminster Hall a school for subtle disputation; the liberality which it has attained in modern times could not be then foreseen, and a court proceeding according to the civil law, was probably, in his opinion, the means best calculated to remedy the growing evil. Experience has now fully proved that equity and law can be concurrently administered by the same judges; and that when a system of jurisprudence is founded upon rational principles, and free from useless niceties, there is little more required to do complete equity, than a fair and correct interpretation of the law itself. * *

In every nation of whose judicial system we have a tolerable account, equity and law are united in the same tribunal. The Roman prætor, the parliaments of France, the court of session in Scotland, and the court of conscience in Portugal, administered as well the strict law as its equitable interpretation. Throughout continental Europe distinct prætorian courts have either ceased to be in use, or have never been introduced. In our own country, the wisdom and policy of a division have been questioned; as notwithstanding the close resemblance which in other respects, our institutions bear to those of England, but eight of the twenty-four independent communities, have drawn even partially the line of distinction between courts of law and equity. The constitutions of six of these were framed at an early date, when all our ideas of jurisprudence were borrowed from England. In the remaining sixteen they are blended together, though with various forms, and dissimilar bounds and regulations.

To these examples we may add the United States courts, in which the two jurisdictions are united. But, indeed, the true and desirable end, to which we ought to arrive, is to have the strict law a code of equity. The very idea of the state of things existing in England, where it requires one half of the courts to relieve, professedly, against the injurious and inequitable system of jurisprudence, which the other half are bound to administer, seems to us to be a monstrous perversion of the proper objects of justice. We are not in the number of those, who lament that the courts, in those states where a distinct chancery tribunal does not exist, are prone to lean towards equitable rules of interpretation. We think the beneficial effects of that tendency in the judges of this country, are many and invaluable. It has freed our law of a multitude of subtle niceties, and of doctrines, engen-

dered in a dark age, and conceived in the subtleties of the schools, which are the reproach of the genuine common law. We hope the salutary reformation will proceed. Professional men amongst us do sometimes indulge in admiration of the English common law, without reflecting that our common law,—the common law as found in America,—is no more like that of England, than a republican government resembles a monarchy, with its two supporting pillars, a titled aristocracy and a church established by law.

A Picture of Greece in 1825; *as exhibited in the Personal Narratives of James Emerson, Esq., Count Pecchio, and W. H. Humphreys, Esq., comprising a detailed Account of the Events of the late Campaign, and Sketches of the principal Military, Naval, and Political Chiefs.* In two Volumes. New York. 1826. 12mo.

This work contains the narratives of three gentlemen, who were present in Greece, during the campaign of 1825; two of them, Mr Emerson and Mr Humphreys, Englishmen, and the third, Count Pecchio, an Italian. The first and longest narrative is that of Mr Emerson, who was concerned in several of the engagements which took place during this period at sea and on land. He arrived in Greece in the latter part of March, 1825, and landed at Clarenza in the Morea. The prospects of Greece at this time were very brilliant. The recognition of the independence of the South American states had given birth to hopes of a similar acknowledgment in favour of Greece. A second English loan had furnished the means of continuing the war with vigour. The government had subdued its internal enemies, and, in the Morea, only a few fortresses now remained to be reduced. The result of the campaign, however, disappointed the fair expectations which had been entertained at its commencement. One principal reason was the new enemy to the liberties of Greece, who had appeared in the person of Mahomet Ali, viceroy of Egypt. The Sultan is reported to have offered him the command of the Morea, should he succeed in reducing it. Whether this be true, or not, the viceroy has confined his operations to that part of Greece. The Greeks, who had been accustomed to contend only with an inactive, cowardly, and

undisciplined foe, were little able to cope with his experienced troops, commanded by skilful officers, and fighting in the modes of European warfare. Their own troops consisted of irregular bands, commanded each by its own *capitano*, acknowledging but little common connexion, expert in *guerilla* fighting, but unaccustomed to face an enemy in the field, or to pursue any plan of extensive operations. The government had, indeed, attempted to form a body of regular troops immediately under its own control; but the *capitani*, who saw that such a measure would be fatal to their own consequence as independent leaders, opposed the plan with all their power. The people, too, who had been accustomed to success under their old system, ridiculed the project, and the government were unable to enforce it to any great extent. The result has been, that their irregular troops have constantly given way before a disciplined enemy. Their own dissensions have also proved a formidable obstacle in the way of their success. Their leaders regard little else than their individual interests. In the latter part of 1824, their dissensions had risen to an alarming height. Great jealousies had existed between the Moreots and Roumeliots, and the government were accused of partiality towards the latter. The Moreot chiefs, moreover, "were dissatisfied at having no share in the increasing power of the government." Influenced by these causes, they demanded, with arms in their hands, that the executive and legislative bodies should be renewed, as the year of their legal duration had expired. Colocotroni joined them, with the intention of ultimately securing the whole power in his own hands. The government did not choose to comply with these demands, and perhaps their refusal was justified by the dangers which then threatened the country. "The consequence was an insurrection on the part of the Moreots, at the head of which were Colocotroni and his sons. The government immediately called in the aid of the Roumeliots, and the insurgents were dispersed, and the rebellion pretty well quelled by the beginning of December." The delay occasioned by this insurrection, prevented, till the middle of January, any attack upon the fortress of Patras, which might have easily been taken at the beginning of the winter. The siege of this place continued till the latter part of February, when information was received of the sailing of the Egyptian armament from Candia, and the blockading squadron was forced to quit Patras, to resist this new enemy. They sailed, however, too late to prevent the disembarkation of the Egyptian forces in the Morea. "Both parties remained quiet till the 20th of

March, when Ibrahim Pacha, having received a reinforcement from Candia, sat down before Navarino with fourteen thousand men." In Western Greece, Ulysses had withdrawn himself from the war, and was apparently endeavouring to connect himself with the enemies of his country. His ambition and resources were great, and he was suspected of aiming at the sovereignty of Greece.

He had lately fortified for his residence, and as a strong-hold in case of extremity, a cave on Mount Parnassus, said to have been discovered by himself. It was reached by ascending a perpendicular cliff of one hundred feet in height, which was accomplished by means of three ladders successively drawn up after passing them; thence arriving at a small platform, a number of descents and windings which conducted to the interior, rendered it totally bomb proof. The cave itself was capable of accommodating two thousand persons, and contained a constant spring of fresh water. Here Ulysses had placed a few pieces of cannon, a supply of small arms, and a sufficiency of ammunition and provisions for a ten years' siege; and hither he had removed his treasures and his family, and concealed himself with Mr Trelawney, an English gentleman, who had attached himself to his fortunes, and married his sister.

He was declared a traitor, and the government were attempting to reduce him by force. Such was the state of things when Mr Emerson landed at Clarenza, in the Morea. From hence, he immediately set out for the seat of government at Napoli di Romania. Travelling through the Morea, according to his account, is a serious undertaking. This part of Greece consists almost entirely of hills. There are no roads, very few bridges, and the passes over the mountains are the dry beds of torrents, which, from time to time, have carried away every particle of earth from between the rocks, and left nothing but a pathway of loose slippery stones.

At Andruzzena, our traveller spent some days with the Eparch, or chief man of the place.

During the few days which bad weather obliged us to remain with him, we had sufficient leisure to make some observations on his character and manners. The latter, like those of the higher orders of his countrymen, were decidedly Turkish. The room in which he received us was fitted up in complete Ottoman style, with stained-glass windows, inlaid ceiling, splendid carpets, mats, cushions, and numerous vases of gold and silver fish. On taking our seats, we were, as usual, presented with a chiboqué and some coffee; whilst our news was eagerly inquired after by our obliging host. He was

about twenty-five years of age; he had formerly enjoyed a confidential situation under the present government, viz. the disposing of the forfeited Turkish lands in his province, and on the expiration of his commission, had obtained the government of his present eparchy. His dress was accurately national, but formed of the most costly materials, and covered with an abundance of braiding and embroidery; whilst his pistols and silver mounted ataghan were of exquisite workmanship. Though his conversation was lively, his manners were indolent and oriental; he reclined almost the entire day on a velvet cushion, surrounded by his attendants, smoking his chiboqué, sipping coffee, or counting over and over again the polished beads of his amber *comboloyo*. Of his dress he was particularly vain, and received with evident pleasure all the praises which we bestowed upon it. On such occasions, he usually arose, set forward his elbow, turned out his heel, and, surveying himself from top to toe, replied with evident complacency, Ναί, τὸ φόρημά μας εἶναι ἀρκετὰ καλόν. "Why, yes, our costume is certainly pretty."

Our fare, during our stay, consisted of lamb, fowls, milk, eggs, and vegetables; and though it was Lent, our accommodating host made no scruple to join in our uncanonical repast. Our breakfast was, generally, made up of curds and eggs, with a little milk and cheese; but the dinner was a somewhat more perplexing affair. Our table was a small round board, raised half a foot from the floor; and round this we were obliged to squat tailor-wise; as to have stretched our limbs would have thrown us at rather an incommodious distance from our provisions. In this posture, by no means an agreeable one to the uninitiated, we were obliged to remain during the tedious process of a Grecian repast, which seldom occupied less than an hour. Our first course consisted of boiled rice, mixed with yaourl or sour curds, eggs fried and swimming in olive oil, and a mixed dish of boiled vegetables, chopped leeks, spinage, sorrel, and mustard leaves. The second, a stewed fowl stuffed with plum-pudding, roast lamb, and *cairare*, rather an odoriferous dish, composed of the entrails of the salmon and cuttlefish, fermented and tempered with oil. Our third remove contained milk in all its different preparations of curd, cheese, and runnet, various combinations of boiled, roast, and whipped eggs; the whole washed down with plentiful draughts of Samian wine, supplied by a cup-bearer, who in proper oriental style, stood constantly behind the cushion of his chieftain. Our dessert, as it was winter, consisted chiefly of oranges and dried fruit, figs, dates, and raisins; on the whole, our feasts were not only classical, but palatable; and when all was concluded, a comfortable room, in which to strew our beds, was a favour as acceptable as it was uncommon.

He seems to have been struck with the appearance of the ladies of the island of Hydra.

The appearance of the population is much more prepossessing than that of any other class of the Greeks; the women are in general pretty; but a universal custom of wearing a kerchief folded over the head, and tied under the chin, destroys the fine contour of their features, and makes them all appear to have round faces. A short silken jacket neatly ornamented, and a large petticoat, containing an immense number of folds and breadths, generally of green stuff, bordered with a few gaudy stripes, complete their simple costume. The neat slipper so universal in the north of Italy, which so delicately shows the turn of the ankle and heel, is likewise worn by the Hydriot ladies; whose jetty hair and sparkling eyes, graceful figures, and beautiful hands, all enhanced by their half European manners, render them, if not the most beautiful, at least the most interesting females I have seen in the Levant.

Mavrocordato is thus described.

I was rather disappointed in the appearance of Mavrocordato; his figure is small, and any thing but dignified or prepossessing. The little of his countenance which is visible through his bushy hair and eyebrows, and his fiercely-curling mustachios, indicates more of childishness than intellect, though the deep glance of a penetrating eye gives it an occasional animation. His manners, like that of all Fanariots, though easy and obliging, contains too much of an overstrained politeness, which seems like intriguing servility; and this, together with a studied lightness of conversation, and an extremely silly laugh, renders the first impression of him by no means favourable.

Our author visited the rebel chiefs confined in the island of Hydra, and speaks of them thus.

The generality of them exhibited nothing peculiar in their appearance, being like the rest of their countrymen, wild, savage-looking soldiers, clad in tarnished embroidered vests, and dirty juctanellas. Colocotroni was, however, easily distinguished from the rest by his particularly savage and uncultivated air; his person is low, but built like a Hercules, and his short bull-neck was surmounted by a head rather larger than proportion warranted; which, with its shaggy eyebrows, dark mustachios, unshorn beard, and raven hair falling in curls over his shoulders, formed a complete study for a painter. * * During my visit, he spoke of his enemies in the government with moderation and no appearance of rancour; but to several others, who had seen him, previous to his prospect of liberation, he had not conducted himself with equal

caution; he, however, said little; but on the name of Mavrocordato or Coletti being mentioned, he gathered his brow, compressed his lips, and baring his huge arm to the shoulder, he flung it from him with an expression of deep and desperate determination.

The following is a description of the fire-ships, which have been of such essential service to the Greeks.

The vessels usually employed for this service, are old ships purchased by the government. Their construction, as fire-ships, is very simple; nothing more being wanted than active combustion. For this purpose, the ribs, hold, and sides of the vessel, after being well tarred, are lined with dried furze, dipped in pitch and lees of oil, and sprinkled with sulphur; a number of hatchways are then cut along the deck, and under each is placed a small barrel of gunpowder; so that at the moment of conflagration each throws off its respective hatch, and giving ample vent to the flames, prevents the deck being too soon destroyed by the explosion.

A train which passes through every part of the ship, and communicates with every barrel, running round the deck and passing out at the steerage window, completes the preparation below; whilst above, every rope and yard is well covered with tar, so as speedily to convey the flames to the sails; and at the extremity of each yard-arm is attached a wickered hook, which being once entangled with the enemy's rigging, renders escape, after coming in contact, almost a matter of impossibility. The train, to prevent accidents, is never laid till the moment of using it; when, all being placed in order, and the wind favourable, with every possible sail set, so as to increase the flames, she bears down upon the enemy's line, whilst the crew, usually twenty-five or thirty in number, have no other defence than crouching behind the after-bulwarks. When close upon the destined ship, all hands descend by the stern, into a launch fitted out for the purpose, with high gunwales and a pair of small swivels; and, at the moment of contact, the train is fired by the captain, and every hatch being thrown off, the flames burst forth, at the same instant, from stem to stern; and ascending by the tarred ropes and sails, soon communicate with the rigging of the enemy's vessel, who have never yet, in one instance, been able to extricate themselves. In fact, such is the terror with which they have inspired the Turks, that they seldom make the slightest resistance. On the distant approach of the fire-ship, they maintain, for some minutes, an incessant random cannonade; but, at length, long before she comes in contact, precipitate themselves into the sea, and attempt to reach the other vessels, scarcely one remaining to the last moment to attempt to save the devoted ship. Sometimes, however, armed boats are sent off from the other vessels of

the fleet, but they have never yet been able either to prevent the approach of the fire-ship, or seize on the crew whilst making their escape; and, though fire-ships are in other countries considered a forlorn hope, such is the stupidity and terror of the Turks, that it is rarely that one of the brulottiers is wounded, and very seldom, indeed, that any lose their lives. The service, however, from the imminent risk to which it is exposed, is rewarded with higher pay than the ordinary seamen; and on every occasion of their success, each brulottier receives an additional premium of one hundred or one hundred and fifty piastres.

The executive government of Greece is composed of five individuals, with a secretary of state. There are, besides, seven ministers of departments, but they are not allowed the exercise of any authority. They are mere heads of departments, without the power to despatch even ordinary business. The executive monopolizes all power. This body is changed twice a year, so that they have no time to become acquainted with their duties, or to accomplish any important object. The number of the legislature exceeds eighty, annually chosen by the people; but only fifty were present, when Count Pecchio visited them, the rest being employed on extraordinary services. Their meetings are usually enlivened by colloquial discussion only. Regular speeches are not attempted. Differences constantly prevail among them, injurious to decorum and energy. The high civil and military officers are men of moderate ability, each one of whom is constantly occupied with intrigues to increase his own popularity, and lower the reputation of his colleagues; thus bringing contempt on the whole body, and palsying their own efficiency. Their orders are disregarded; their persons are unpopular. The people see the burdens of the war cast upon themselves, and its advantages monopolized by men in power. They see a variety of clashing interests united only to oppress them, and, whichever faction gains the ascendancy, their own situation remains the same. The funds sent to Greece from abroad have been made the subject of a general scramble, and swallowed up by hungry peculators. No traces are visible of their having been employed for the common good, in the condition of the army, of the navy, nor of the public fortifications. The unconditional cession of money into the hands of the Greeks themselves, it is said, has caused all but their utter ruin; and it is recommended, that if any further advances are made, conditions of specific appropriation should be annexed.

The constitution of the Greek army is singular, and its character inefficient. It is made up of companies collected by their leaders or *capitani*, and hanging together loosely, under the command of a few general officers. The *capitani* receive from the government the pay and rations for their troops, and generally contrive to enrich themselves by returning an exaggerated number, and embezzling the surplus wages and supplies. The government are well aware of this, but are too weak to attempt a reform. The soldiers are bound by no military regulations; they follow their leaders for such a length of time only as suits their pleasure, and are constantly changing from chief to chief. They frequently compel, by violence, an increase of pay, and at critical moments will leave their posts to attend to the safety of their families or celebrate a festival. Unless obliged by necessity, they will never fight without some sort of shelter, most commonly temporary bulwarks of loose stones, called *tambours*. They do not possess sufficient courage for the assault of fortified places. They stand in great awe of the Egyptian bayonet and of the Turkish cavalry. They have an aversion to regular troops, produced by their desultory mode of fighting, and the influence of their *capitani*, whose avarice and ambition are interested in the maintenance of the present system. Little regard is paid by them to the orders of government. After the confinement of Colocotroni, in consequence of the part which he took in the insurrection already referred to, the Moreots refused to serve until his release, although the Egyptians were then making alarming progress towards the reduction of their peninsula. Constant dissensions prevail between the Roumeliots and the Moreots. The conduct of the former, when called in to protect the Morea, was like that of troops in an enemy's country; and on hearing of the arrival of the Turks in their own district, they immediately quitted the defence of the peninsula. It is seldom that a disposable force of more than six thousand men can be collected, as the great body of the people take no interest in the defence of any thing but their own immediate districts.

The entire Greek fleet is, as yet, the property of individuals, and though the sailors are paid by the government, and an allowance made for the disbursements of the vessels, the owners are, in general, subject to the main part of the expenses. The seamen are active and skilful, and vary in number from sixty to an hundred on board each vessel. No man has any regular duty assigned him, and of course every order is productive of confusion. Great dissensions prevail among the different parts of

the fleet. The Spezziots are jealous of the Hydriots, whose superior power has enabled them to take the lead in the naval affairs of Greece; and never will heartily co-operate with them, even where unanimity is indispensable to success. Their squadron sails in a body by itself, with its own admiral, and code of signals, and refuses every request of the Hydriot commander, which does not coincide with its own views. The exploits which have gained the fleet so much credit, have all been performed by the fire-ships, with the assistance of twelve or fourteen other vessels. The remainder hang aloof in every engagement, and aid only by adding to the show of force. This arises from the ships being private property, which the owners do not choose to expose to the heavy fire of the Tuskish men of war. It is plain, that large ships, to enable them to meet the enemy on equal terms, will soon be necessary, as the Turks cannot always remain so stupid, as to allow their vessels to be burnt, without resistance, by the *brulots*, which are seldom used with success against the fleets of any other nation. Every attempt, moreover, made by the Greek fleet against the Egyptian, during the last year, failed.

Religion is in a very degraded state among the Greeks, owing to the corruption of its ministers, whose sacred calling, however, still produces a superstitious veneration for their persons, and a ready compliance with their exorbitant exactions. Of their corruption, the people are perfectly sensible, and very desirous of a reform. The observances prescribed by their religious system are strictly complied with by the great body of the nation, though they are wholly ignorant of its doctrines. The state of education is very low. Many of the principal chiefs of the Morea cannot sign their names, and very few of the lower orders can read. Schools indeed are established in some of the villages, in which the system pursued, is for all the pupils to read aloud, at the same time, out of different books, while one stands in the centre to rap them on the soles of their feet, whenever they are unemployed. The master sits in a corner, to see that a sufficient clatter is kept up, and that a few advanced pupils are properly occupied in instructing beginners in the alphabet. In the islands there are some schools of a higher character, and the government contemplate making liberal provision for education, as soon as they become possessed of the means.

"Modern Greek literature is neither extensive nor interesting. Their prose consists of a vast quantity of theology, a few works on geography, grammar, rhetoric, and philology, and a number of late translations from European authors, in various deparments.

Their poetry is neither spirited nor musical, consisting of some translations from Homer, a few dramatic pieces, and some satires and songs of war and love." A slight sprinkling of Turkish and Italian words, principally distinguishes modern from ancient Greek. A man, who is tolerably versed in the latter, can easily acquire the former, and speak it with fluency, after residing in the country for a few months. Three periodical journals are published in Greece, at Athens, at Messolunghi, and at Hydra. They are principally occupied with details of the war, and these they do not give till after they have become public rumours, from the want of active communication through the country. In revolutionary Greece they are but little read. The Hydriot journal is principally supported by its circulation in the Ionian Islands, and in Europe. Even in this country, struggling for liberty, the press is not free. "The editor of the 'Athenian Gazette' has been already cautioned by the government for the freedom of his censure in some articles; and the editor of the 'Hydriot Friend of the Law' is at present obliged to read over, and submit to the corrections of Lazzaro Conduriotti, the president of the Hydriot senate, every number previous to its being sent to the press."

Such being the character of the people and of their leaders, of their army and their navy, it is evident that the partial success of their efforts is in a great measure owing to the inactivity and imbecility of the Turks. And the entrance of the viceroy of Egypt into the contest will greatly increase its difficulty and hazard. Of the final success of the Greeks, however, there can be little doubt. Their ancient hatred has been embittered by recent strife. Their toils have developed their energies. The whole population has become inspired with the love of freedom. The world is witness to their struggle, and is cheering them on. The moral atmosphere of the times is full of the vivifying principle of liberty. And to fail in such a cause, and under the influence of such excitements, would indicate a deeper degradation, than even centuries of Turkish despotism can have brought on their character.

Narrative of Travels and Discoveries in Northern and Central Africa, in the years 1822, 1823, and 1824, *by Major Denham, Captain Clapperton, and the late Dr Oudney extending across the Great Desert to the Tenth Degree of Northern Latitude, and from Kouka in Bornou, to Sackatoo, the Capital of the Fellatah Empire. With an Appendix.* By Major DIXON DENHAM and Captain HUGH CLAPPERTON, Survivors of the Expedition. London. 1826. 1 Vol. 4to. pp. 335 and 268.

THAT English travellers have penetrated quite to the centre of Africa; that races of men have been found possessing higher degrees of civilization than were generally supposed to exist there; and that some of those, who performed this journey, have survived to publish an authentic account of their discoveries in a land which has never before been explored by civilized man, are facts calculated to give to the volume before us an unusual interest. Captain Clapperton and Dr Oudney, of the royal navy, were joined at Tripoli by Major Denham, of the army, and Mr Hillman, a shipwright, who had been engaged for the expedition at Malta. These four, with their servants, horses, camels, and baggage, left Tripoli early in the spring of 1822, and proceeded southward for a month, through rather an uninteresting country, but without any interruption from the natives, or more hardships than were anticipated as incident to this mode of travelling. On the 8th of April they reached Mourzuk, situated in 26° north latitude, and about 14° east longitude.

Our interview with the Sultan of Mourzuk was anything but encouraging; he told us there was no intention, as we had been led to expect, of any expedition to proceed to the southward for some time to come; that an army could only move in the spring of the year; that the arrangements for moving a body of men through a country, where every necessary must be carried on camels both for men and horses, were so numerous, that before the following spring it was scarcely possible to complete them; that two camels were required for every man and horse, and one for every two men on foot. And as to our proceeding to Bornou, it would be necessary, had the Bashaw instructed him to forward us, that we should be accompanied by an escort of two hundred men.

This unexpected delay was a sad disappointment to our travellers, as it seemed to cut off all hope of proceeding farther south before the spring. The Sultan soon set out on a visit to

Tripoli; and Major Denham followed him, in order to represent to the Bashaw that it was necessary that something should be given him for his sterling money besides promises. An altercation with the Bashaw resulted in the determination of Major Denham to proceed forthwith to England, to state to his government how grievously he had been deceived by the fair promises he had before received at Tripoli.

The promptitude with which it was decided upon, and carried into effect, was not without its good effects. The bashaw sent three despatches after me, by three different vessels, to Leghorn, Malta, and the port [Marseilles] I had sailed to, which I received in quarantine, informing me, that Boo-Khaloom was appointed with an escort to convey us forthwith to Bornou. This was every thing I wished for, and re-embarking, a seven days' passage brought me once more to the shores of Barbary.

Major Denham arrived again at Mourzuk on the 20th of October, and found his companions all in feeble health. They had, however, during his absence, made an excursion of about two hundred miles to the westward. A journal of this tour was kept by Dr Oudney; but as it presents nothing of peculiar interest, when compared with other parts of the volume, we propose to pass over it, and follow the main expedition southward to Bornou. The escort promised by the bashaw of Tripoli, was composed of Arabs, chosen from the most obedient tribes, and was organized with as little delay as possible, by Boo-Khaloom, a rich merchant of Mourzuk, who had been designated at his own request to command it. As much of the happiness as well as the safety of the travellers depended upon their escort, we think it worth while to make our readers somewhat acquainted with the character of it.

The fondness of an Arab for traditional history of the most distinguished actions of their remote ancestors is proverbial. Professed story-tellers are ever the appendages to a man of rank. His friends will assemble before his tent, or on the platforms with which the houses of the Moorish Arabs are roofed, and there listen, night after night, to a continued history, for sixty and sometimes one hundred nights together. It is a great exercise of genius, and a peculiar gift held in high estimation among them. They have a quickness and clearness of delivery, with a perfect command of words, surprising to a European ear. They never hesitate, are never at a loss; their descriptions are highly poetical, and their relations exemplified by figure and metaphor the most striking and appropriate; their extempore songs are also full of fire, and possess many beautiful and happy similes. Certain tribes are

celebrated for this gift of extempore speaking and singing; the chiefs cultivate the propensity in their children; and it is often possessed to an astonishing degree by men who are unable either to read or write. * * We had several among our party, who shone as orators in verse, to use the idiom of their own expressive language, particularly one of the tribe of Boo Saiff Marabooteens, or gifted persons, who would sing for an hour together, faithfully describing the whole of our journey for the preceding fortnight, relating the most trifling occurrence that had happened, even to the name of the well, and the colour and taste of the water, with astonishing rapidity and humour, and in very tolerable poetry; while some of his traditionary ballads were beautiful.

The expedition left Mourzuk on the last day of November, and proceeded southward, as fast as the nature of the journey would permit. On the 17th of February, 1823, they entered Kouka, the capital of Bornou, situated on the lake Tchad, in about 13° north latitude and 14° east longitude, being, of course, 20° or twelve hundred miles south of Tripoli.

This was to us a momentous day, and it seemed to be equally so to our conductors. Notwithstanding all the difficulties that had presented themselves at the various stages of our journey, we were at last within a few short miles of our destination; were about to become acquainted with a people who had never seen, and scarcely ever heard of a European; and to tread on ground, the knowledge and true situation of which had hitherto been wholly unknown. * * I had ridden on a short distance in front of Boo-Khaloom, with his train of Arabs all mounted and dressed out in their best apparel, and from the thickness of the trees, soon lost sight of them, fancying that the road could not be mistaken. I rode still onwards, and, on approaching a spot less thickly planted, was not a little surprised to see in front of me a body of several thousand cavalry, drawn up in line, and extending right and left quite as far as I could see; and, checking my horse, I awaited the arrival of my party, under the shade of a wide spreading acacia. The Bornou troops remained quite steady, without noise or confusion; and a few horsemen, who were moving about in front, giving directions, were the only persons out of the ranks. On the Arabs' appearing in sight, a shout or yell was given by the Sheikh's people, which rent the air; a blast was blown from their rude instruments equally loud, and they moved on to meet Boo-Khaloom and his Arabs. There was an appearance of tact and management in their movements which astonished me. Three separate small bodies from the centre and each flank kept charging rapidly towards us till within a few feet of our horses' heads, without checking the speed of their own until the moment of their

halt, while the whole body moved onwards. These parties were mounted on small, but very perfect horses, who stopped and wheeled from their utmost speed with great precision, shaking their spears over their heads and exclaiming, "*Barca! barca! Alla hiakkum, alla cheraga!*" "Blessing! blessing! sons of your country! sons of your country!" and returning quickly to the front of the body in order to repeat the charge. While all this was going on, they closed in their right and left flanks, and surrounded the little body of Arab warriors so completely, as to give the compliment of welcoming them very much the appearance of a declaration of their contempt of their weakness. I am quite sure this was premeditated; we were all so closely pressed as to be nearly smothered, and in some danger from the crowding of the horses and clashing of the spears. Moving on was impossible; and we therefore came to a full stop; our chief was much enraged, but it was all to no purpose, he was only answered by shouts of "welcome!" and spears most unpleasantly rattling over our heads, expressive of the same feeling. This annoyance was not, however, of long duration; Barca Gana, the Sheikh's first general, a negro of a noble aspect, clothed in a figured silk tobe, and mounted on a beautiful Mandara horse, made his appearance, and, after a little delay, the rear was cleared of those who had pressed in upon us, and we moved on, although but very slowly, from the frequent impediments thrown in our way by these wild equestrians.

After this military parade, the travellers were received with great pomp by the Sultan of Bornou, who seemed disposed to afford them protection, and to offer them every facility in his power for accomplishing the objects of their visit. At Kouka, as a "home," they remained for a year and a half; making excursions in different directions, some of which occupied several months. One to Mandara, about two hundred miles farther south, was attended with great danger, and had well nigh proved destructive to the whole expedition. We extract the following passage from Major Denham's journal of this tour, which will give some idea of the mode of warfare practised by the more savage tribes of Central Africa.

The Felatahs [the enemy] had carried a strong fence of palisades, well pointed and fastened together with thongs of raw hides, six feet in height, from one hill to the other, and had placed their bowmen behind the palisades; and on the rising ground, with the wadey before them, their horse were all under cover of the hills and town: this was a strong position. The Arabs, however, moved on with great gallantry, without any support or co-operation from the Bornou or Mandara troops; and, notwithstanding the showers of arrows, some poisoned, which were poured on them

from behind the palisades, Boo-Khaloom, with his handful of Arabs, carried them in about half an hour, and dashed on, driving the Felatahs up the side of the hills. The women were every where seen supplying their protectors with fresh arrows during this struggle; and when they retreated to the hills, still shooting on their pursuers, the women assisted by rolling down huge masses of the rock previously undermined for the purpose, which killed several of the Arabs, and wounded others. Barca Gana and about one hundred of the Bornou spearmen, now supported Boo-Khaloom, and pierced through and through some fifty unfortunates who were left wounded near the stakes. I rode by his side, as he pushed on quite into the town, and a very desperate skirmish took place between Barca Gana's people and a small party of the Felatahs. These warriors throw a spear with great dexterity; and three times I saw the man transfixed to the earth who was dismounted for the purpose of firing the town, and as often were those who rushed forward for that purpose, sacrificed for their temerity by the Felatahs. Barca Gana, whose muscular arm was almost gigantic, threw eight spears, which all told, some of them at a distance of thirty or thirty-five yards, and particularly on a Felatah chief, who, with his own hand, had brought four to the ground.

The inhabitants of this part of Africa possess at least one of the essentials for civilized life.

Iron is found in abundance in all the Mandara hills; but no other metal that I was informed of. All the houses or huts at Mandara have outer doors to the court, which are made of pieces of wood, hasped together with iron. They make hinges, small bars, and a sort of hoe used to weed corn, and send them for sale to the Bornou towns. The iron they use is brought from the west, near Karowa. I went to the house of a blacksmith, for the purpose of seeing some of the metal in its natural state, and found four men, with a very rude forge, formed by a hole in the sand; the bellows were two kid skins, with an iron tube fixed in each, which tubes were conveyed underneath the fire. The wind was produced by a man blowing these skins, which were opened at the top to let in the air. Their hammers were two pieces of iron, weighing about two pounds each, and a coarse piece of the same metal for an anvil; and, considering their implements, they worked with some tact.

In a journal of an excursion to Gambaroo, which lies to the westward of Kouka, Major Denham says;

Just before sunset we came upon a herd of elephants, fourteen or fifteen in number; these the negroes made to dance and frisk like so many goats, by beating violently a brass basin with a stick;

and as night now began to cast over us its gloomy veil, we determined on fixing ourselves until morning in a small open space, where a large tree, destroyed by the attacks of the white ant, had fallen, and afforded us firewood to prepare our supper. To seek it at any distance would have been dangerous at that time of the evening, on account of the lions; and the little grass that was gathered for our horses, was furnished by the space within sight of our tents. Our animals were brought as close as possible, and we kept up fires the greater part of the night; a few roaring salutations, and those principally from the elephant and jackal, were the only disturbance that we met with.

A wedding in Bornou is a ceremony of great pomp.

In these southern climes all matters of business as well as pleasure, are transacted before the generality of people in England have well finished their night's rest; and this morning I rode out by daylight to see the ceremony of a Bornou wedding. The lady was from Angomou; and the bridegroom's friends, to the number of twenty or thirty, all mounted and in their best clothes, went to give her welcome; she was mounted on a bullock, whose back was covered with blue and white turkadees, and followed by four female slaves, laden with straw baskets, wooden bowls, and earthen pots; while two other bullocks carried the rest of the dowry, which consisted of a certain number of turkadees and tobes. She was attended by her mother, and five or six young ladies, who acted as bride's maids. We galloped up to them repeatedly, which is the mode of salutation. The women cover their faces, and scream their thanks; the men, however, wheel their horses quickly, and return with their eyes cast to the ground, it being considered as extremely indelicate to look upon the bride. The lady, after this, proceeds to the bridegroom's house with her mother, and there remains shut up until the evening, when she is handed over to her justly impatient lord; for the whole of the day he is obliged to parade the streets with a crowd after him, or sit on a raised seat *à la sultan* in his house, dressed in all the finery he can either borrow or buy; while the people crowd in upon him, blowing horns, beating drums, and crying "*Engouboror degut! Alla Kabunsho! Alla Kiura!*" "May you live for ever! God prosper you! grey hairs to you!" to all which he makes no answer; but looks more foolish than one could suppose it possible for any man in so enviable a situation as that of a bridegroom to do.

On the 14th of December, 1823, Captain Clapperton and Dr Oudney left Kouka on a journey westward; but the health of the latter, already feeble, was constantly declining, till the 12th of January following, when he died. The survivor proceeded still

westward, and, having rested a few days at a time at several different towns, he arrived at Sackatoo, March 16th. This place is the capital of the Felatah empire, and is situated in latitude 13° north, and longitude 6° east, being between four and five hundred miles west of Kouka, and a somewhat less distance from the Gulf of Guinea. Here, in the very heart of Africa, Captain Clapperton spent some weeks, and employed his time in making himself acquainted with the surrounding country and its inhabitants, by whom he was generally received with great hospitality. The following passages will be particularly interesting to those who have any curiosity to know the particulars of the death of Mungo Park.

On receiving the presents, Gomsoo, "a man of great influence at Sackatoo," promised to give me a letter to the sultan of Youri, who was his particular friend, and with whom he had lived many years. He also said he was there when the English came down from Timbuctoo, and were lost; which circumstance he related in the following manner: They had arrived off a town called Boosa, and, having sent a gun and some other articles as presents to the sultan of Youri, they sent to purchase a supply of onions in the market. The sultan apprised them of his intention to pay them a visit, and offered to send people to guide them through the ledges of rock which run quite across the river a little below the town, where the banks rise into high hills on both sides. Instead of waiting for the sultan, however, they set off at night, and by daybreak next morning a horseman arrived at Youri, to inform the sultan that the boat had struck on the rocks. The people on both sides of the river began to assail them with arrows, upon which they threw overboard all their effects; and two white men, arm in arm, jumped into the water, two slaves only remaining in the boat, with some books and papers and several guns; one of the books was covered with wax cloth, and still remained in the hands of the sultan of Youri.

This story derived confirmation from a subsequent conversation with the sultan.

He then spoke of Mungo Park, and said, that had he come in the rainy season, he would have passed the rocks; but that the river fell so low in the dry season, boats could only pass at a certain point. He told me that some timbers of the boat, fastened together with nails, remained a long time on the rocks; and that a double-barrelled gun, taken in the boat, was once in his possession, but it had lately burst. His cousin, Abderachman, however, had a small printed book, taken out of the boat; but he was now absent on an expedition to Nyffee. The other books were in the hands of the sultan of Youri, who was tributary to him. I told

the sultan, if he could procure these articles for the king of England, they would prove a most acceptable present, and he promised to make every exertion in his power.

We have not room for more extracts from the journal of this excursion. Captain Clapperton returned by nearly the same route on which he came, and reached Kouka on the 8th of July, 1824, having been absent from there nearly seven months. In the mean time, Major Denham had made several short excursions in different directions from Kouka; and one of two hundred miles, eastward along the shore of the lake Tchad. Late in August, the travellers took leave of their "hospitable" friends in Kouka, and set out for Tripoli, where they arrived on the 26th of January, 1825, after an absence of almost three years.

We had no other duties to perform except providing for our embarkation, with all our live animals, birds, and other specimens of natural history, and settling with our faithful native attendants, some of whom had left Tripoli with us, and returned in our service; they had strong claims on our liberality, and had served us with astonishing fidelity in many situations of great peril; and if either here or in the foregoing part of this journal, it may be thought that I have spoken too favourably of the natives we were thrown amongst, I can only answer, that I have described them as I found them, hospitable, kindhearted, honest, and liberal; to the latest hour of my life, I shall remember them with affectionate regard; and many are the untutored children of nature in Central Africa, who possess feelings and principles that would do honour to the most civilized Christian.

MISCELLANY.

NOTICE OF THE "VALLEY OF THE FURNAS," IN THE ISLAND OF ST MICHAELS.

St Michaels, March —, 18—.

DEAR S——,

We have lately made an excursion to the Furnas, one of the most remarkable places in the island; I will endeavour to make it known to you, although I am sensible that descriptions give very imperfect notions of local scenery. "The Valley of the Furnas" is in the interior of the island, twenty-five miles from the city of Ponta Delgada. We set out at sunrise, on one of those delicious mornings which are only known in a southern climate. I do not think there are a greater number of fine days in the islands, than in our own

northern climate, but there are days of which we can have no conception, when the air is balmy to the senses, and its brightness and transparency give perfect distinctness to the outline of every object. The temperature of the air is like that of our mildest days in June. It never chills, and is never too warm. There is even a sensation of happiness in breathing it. It brings to you the perfume of the orange blossom; and associated as that is with the tranquil beauty of the deep blue sky, it is almost like an intellectual pleasure. But nothing can be more transient than these delightful mornings. In a few hours a cloud, which comes, we know not whence, obscures all the brilliancy, and, often pouring down a heavy shower, passes off, and the serenity and beauty of the early morning return with additional softness.

We travelled on jack-asses, as the road will admit of no other mode of conveyance. There were six of us, with four jacks to carry our baggage, and an equal number of men to guide the animals. The appearance of this despised creature is certainly picturesque. His coat is long and shaggy, but his gentle, patient eye bespeaks at first our compassion and good will. They are never willing to go abreast, but follow each other in procession. Without harness of any kind, and with only a small stick to guide them, they carry one safely over precipices, and through paths where one would hardly venture on foot.

The road, for the first ten miles, is along the iron-bound coast of the island, worn into grotesque and fantastic shapes, like the rocks at Nahant, by the eternal succession of waves. Sometimes we pass overhanging rocks, which threaten every minute to fall; sometimes projecting precipices, round which there is scarcely room to creep; and then a little tranquil bay, where the ripple of the water on the silver sand is scarcely heard, or only heard to be contrasted with the dashing of the waves against the projecting rocks. After the first ten miles, we reach Villa Franca, a pleasant town on the coast; the road then takes an interior direction, and winds among the mountains.

The deep and romantic glens through which the road passes, are in some places almost impervious to the light of the sun. The gigantic ferns hang down like beautiful drapery against the sides of the ravines; and heaths, and myrtles, and other flowering shrubs creep up between the rocks where soil enough can be found for their support, and remain undisturbed in lonely beauty. Now and then a mountain torrent rushes by, and gives a momentary animation to the stillness of these solitudes. After winding through the ravines, and climbing the mountains, a sudden turn of the road brings the whole Valley of the Furnas at our feet. It is impossible for any description to give you a just idea of this little secluded spot, as we descended the winding path of the last

mountain. Imagine then, my dear S——, a valley of about ten miles' circumference, entirely shut in with mountains, and divided by hedges into beautiful green enclosures, that give it the appearance of a garden, laid out with great regularity. Many rapid shallow streams wind through, and, uniting, form a small river, called Ribeira Quente, or Warm River, which flows into the sea through a deep ravine. The mountains are varied in height from fifteen hundred to three thousand feet. In some places wooded and verdant to the summit, in others, broken and rugged, with projecting rocks. Winding paths are seen in every direction, seeming to lead into deeper solitudes. After the winter rains the mountain torrents appear on every side, and add much to the beauty of the valley. In some places they are seen dashing and foaming along, in others, like a silver ribbon hanging down the face of a dark rock, and in others broken into spray, that resembles the flakes of falling snow.

The small village in the middle of the valley, with its white church and thatched cottages, seems protected in its solitude by the dark shadows of the mountains and overhanging rocks. The country house of Mr H——, is on the south side of the valley. He is a gentleman from Boston, who has lived many years in the island, and whose taste first selected this beautiful spot for a summer retreat, and made it known to others. No one who has experienced the kindness and the fulness of his hospitality can here feel that he is in a land of strangers.

Mr H——'s house stands in an elevated situation, and his grounds are nearly enclosed by a bend of the river. Walks, bordered on each side with trees of boxwood, which here grow very large, and, meeting at the top, almost exclude the light, lead to the house. The transition from these dark walks to the open lawn on which the house stands, is very beautiful. A small lake in front of the house is surrounded with forest trees and flowering shrubs, and a smooth, broad path around it, makes it one of the most delightful walks in the world. A little island in the centre of the lake, and connected with the land by a stone bridge of three arches, is nearly covered by the drooping branches of a weeping willow.

It is impossible to describe the effect of contrast in this secluded spot upon the imagination: shut in, as we are, by these bleak and barren mountains, surrounded with fragrant and flowering shrubs, in the most delicious climate in the world, with nothing to be seen above us but the deep blue sky, and nothing to be heard around us but the murmuring of the little river, and sometimes the church bell echoing among the hills, to call the villagers to mass.

The inhabitants of this valley are poor, but contented. They live and die here, and seldom pass the mountains. They seem to

be a careless, cheerful race. We often saw them dancing to the guitar, as we passed their cottages in the afternoon or evening; and they are also remarkable for the kindness of their dispositions, and the courtesy of their manners.

But the "Valley of the Furnas" is more known to invalids for its hot springs and baths, than for the beauty of its scenery. These are situated at one extremity of the valley, and the approach to them is indicated by the increased temperature of the ground, and by large columns of steam which are seen at some distance. These pools of water are from ten to thirty feet in diameter, and are constantly boiling with great violence. The peasants place their vegetables in baskets, and suspend them in the boiling water, and they are speedily cooked. The great luxury of the valley is the natural warm bath. The water is conveyed to bathing houses from the Caldeiras (boiling springs), and becomes sufficiently cooled in the passage for a most grateful bath. The water is extremely soft, and, if taken after much fatigue, it restores strength and elasticity to the frame.

If the "Valley of the Furnas" were in our own country, it would be visited by all descriptions of persons. The wealthy and happy would go there to enjoy the luxury of the climate, and the beauty of the scenery; the sick would go with the hope of finding health from its medicinal waters; and those, whom a hopeless disease had smitten, would wish to die in this tranquil spot.

LITHOGRAPHY.

Lithography is the art of taking impressions from drawings or writings on stone. As the art has been carried to great perfection in Europe, and is now introduced into our own country, and a press established in this city, we have thought that a short account of it would be interesting to our readers. It was invented about the year 1800, by Aloys Sennefelder, a singer in the theatre of Munich. In a few years it was practised throughout the greater part of Germany. In 1803, Sennefelder went to Vienna, and after a short residence there, returned to Munich, and established several stone printing presses, where the art was brought to a high degree of perfection. None of them, however, contributed so essentially to the progress of the art, as the one founded in the same place by Baron Aretin and Mr Manlich, whence issued the beautiful collection of copies from the great masters, whose works adorn the cabinet of his Bavarian majesty. By the year 1807, it was introduced into France and Italy. It had been previously established in Great Britain, in the year 1801, under the name of polyautography, so called from its capacity of multiplying drawings from the hands of

the artist. It did not, however, make very great progress there till within the last few years, during which Mr Ackermann has carried it on very successfully, with the aid of a German artist. In Paris, the presses of Count Lasteyrie, the son-in-law of Lafayette, and those of M. Engelmann, have produced many beautiful specimens of the art.

The art of lithography, says Rancourt, may be divided into two parts; 1st, The execution of the drawing; 2d, The printing. The first part is not attended with much peculiar difficulty. Any artist who understands drawing, may succeed in it. The main difficulty lies in the printing, which, in the case of delicate and highly finished drawings, is always attended with some uncertainty of success. The drawing is made on a polished stone, with an ink or chalk composed of greasy materials, in the same way as drawings are executed on paper with common ink or chalk. The stone is then given to the lithographic printer, that he may obtain impressions from it. In order to do this, he wets its whole surface, but as the greasy materials, which constitute the drawing, will not receive water, only the uncovered part imbibes it. A thick greasy ink is then passed over the stone, and received by the lines of the drawing, while the remainder of the surface being wet refuses to take it. A sheet of paper is then pressed strongly on the stone, and a reversed impression of the drawing obtained. The stone is again wetted, again charged with ink, and thus a series of impressions are procured. The result is the same as in copperplate printing, but the means are different. The process of engraving is mechanical, that of lithography chemical. Simple as the theory of lithographic printing may seem, its execution on a large scale is attended with many difficulties, and cannot be successfully attempted without the practice of many years. We have a proof of this in the early polyautographic works, published in London, the drawings for which were by the first artists of the metropolis, but the impressions are mere essays in the art.

All stones susceptible of taking in a greasy substance, and of imbibing water with facility, are suitable for lithographic printing, provided they are compact, capable of receiving a fine polish, and of a clear and uniform colour. The more compact and uniform in colour, the better. Those commonly used, are a nearly pure carbonate of lime. Suitable stones are by no means scarce. From the coarse calcareous stones which serve for building, to the compact ones, which receive the polish of marble, a great variety are more or less proper for lithography. The quarry, from which the first lithographic stones were extracted nineteen years ago, is still that which furnishes them in the greatest abundance, and of the largest dimensions. It is situated at Solenhofen, near Pappenheim, in Bavaria. No quarries hitherto known in France afford stones

equal to the German. When proper stones cannot be obtained without difficulty or great expense, it is more advantageous to fabricate artificial slabs, to which a proper density and hardness may be given. An intelligent potter can easily imitate the density of natural stones. Slabs, used for this purpose, have been made of stucco composed of lime and sand, and fastened with the caseous part of milk. Artificial slabs, however, have not been made so as to equal the real ones; and the Royal Institute of France have thought the subject of sufficient importance to offer a large prize for the best.

One principal advantage of lithography is the expedition with which a drawing may be made, and copies taken off; while, at the same time, the stone is not rendered unserviceable for any other purpose, as is the case with copper and wood, since the surface needs only to be rubbed a little, to be rendered fit to be used again. The number and goodness of the impressions afforded, is another point in which it is far superior to engraving. It is said, that in the stone printing-presses of Vienna, thirty thousand impressions have been taken from one drawing, the last of which was nearly as good as the first. Count Lasteyrie is said to have taken off even seventy thousand impressions. The power of transferring the copies, is another singular advantage attending the art of lithography. Whenever it is of importance that the impression should be a perfect *fac-simile*, and not a reversed picture of the original, the drawing may be made on prepared paper, and then, by an easy process, be transferred from the paper to the stone. This process is not confined to drawings originally made on paper, but is applicable to impressions already taken from the stone. In this manner, an indefinite number of impressions may be obtained by transferring the copy to several stones, or, when the prints are small, several copies to one large stone, which will greatly diminish the expense of printing; or if a large number of impressions of any important paper were suddenly wanted, several might be thrown off in a few moments, on several stones, and given to be printed in different presses.

The facility with which lithographic drawings are executed, the art not requiring a long previous study, like that of engraving, enables any person, who can handle a pencil, to furnish a design for the lithographic printer. This renders lithography of great advantage to several classes of manufacturers, such as coach-makers, upholsterers, clockmakers, goldsmiths, &c. It is also highly useful for copies of writing, music, models of machinery, &c. For coloured drawings, lithography is preferable to any other process, as the impresssons are perfectly smooth, and not imprinted in the paper, as is the case with those taken from wood, nor raised in relief, like those taken from the copperplate. The lithographic

imitation of wood-engraving possesses a great advantage over the best performances on wood, in regard to purity, cheapness, and more expeditious production. It admits of drawings being executed with the pencil, the pen, or chalk. As the artist does not cut into the stone, the *fac-simile* posseses all the ease, softness, and freedom of a drawing, and it may with truth be asserted, that by this art alone, the bold, spirited strokes of the pen, and the softness of the chalk, can be preserved. The naturalist, the architect, the painter, or the penman, have only to draw their figures with resinous ink, upon varnished paper, and, by the process already explained, they may obtain as many copies as they desire, possessing all the spirit and correctness of the originals. Whatever ease or softening is communicated to the drawing on the paper, the same is preserved in the impression from the stone.

Lithography admits also of engraving on stone; and, in this respect has another advantage over copperplate engraving, because its strokes are not so sharp, and have more resemblance to drawing. The stone admits all the different kinds of work, that copper does. The artist may work upon it, just as well with the etching needle, as with the dry point and the graver; but what is called the dotted manner does not succeed so well. It must be allowed, too, that no engraving on stone with the burin, has yet been made to equal the fineness of a copperplate engraving; though a skilful artist can approach very near, in fineness of touch and in freedom of execution, to the engraver on copper; as is evident from some of the landscapes published by Sennefelder, and from the productions of Count Lasteyrie, Mr Engelmann, and Mr Ackermann. Etchings on stone, from the facility with which they are made, the fineness and purity of the lines, and the expedition in printing, are likely to prove much more useful than drawings in lithographic ink.

The cheapness and facility of the lithographic process, the number and goodness of the impressions to be obtained from a single plate, the spirit of these impressions, they being *fac-similes* of the original drawing, show that it is a most valuable substitute for copperplate printing, in all but the highest branches of the art; and even in regard to these, the rapid progress which lithography has made of late years, shows that it will not long remain inferior. Its general diffusion throughout any country, we cannot but regard as essentially conducive to the progress of the useful and ornamental arts, and we look upon it as a fortunate circumstance, that a lithographic press has been established in this city by Mr Pendleton. He has studied the art in the best printing-houses of Paris, and has commenced its practice here, well furnished with knowledge and materials to pursue it to advantage. We hope his skill and enterprise will meet with the encouragement which they so eminently deserve.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

FROM THE FIRST PAGE OF A YOUNG LADY'S ALBUM.

A LOVELY garden thou shalt be
Of choice, well cultured poetry;
I charm thee from those weeds of praise,
An idle flatterer's heartless lays;
From hateful Satire's thistle sting;
From demon Envy's serpent cling,
Who loves, wherever laurels grow,
The venom of his breath to throw;
From Censure's blight, so often stealing
O'er the young bursting buds of feeling;
From critic birds of prey, I charm thee,
Though oft their feather's sound alarm thee,
And though they hope to get fine feed in
The songsters of our spell-bound Eden.

I gift thee with ambrosial air,
Flowers as the cheek of Houris fair,
And "wood-notes wild" from every tree,
Surpassing Art's best minstrelsy;
Fruits of the tree, and earth, and vine,
And bowers, and grots, and groves be thine;
Thy skies each grateful change bestow
Of freshening shower and sunny glow;
Grateful indeed,—for Beauty's eyes
Will form those ever-varying skies;
Now brightening into sunny play
Over a light and cheering lay,
Then softening into gentle rain
Over some bosom-touching strain.

Thy flowers must be divinely fair,
For Love will plant his roses there,
Soft, blushing in voluptuous bloom,
And redolent with rich perfume.
Imagination's tulip dyes
Shall spread their brightness to the skies;
And, shrinking from the world away,
To bask beneath fond Friendship's ray,
Shall the heart's genial bloomings be
Like those of that half-living tree,
Whose tender flow'rets sleep at noon,
To wake beneath the gentle moon.

Will not the fruit thou yield'st be sweet,
Tempting the very gods to eat?
Quick fancies running wild shall be
The nectar-flavoured strawberry;
Sweet love speeches, the downy peaches,
Each melting as the mouth it reaches;
Deep Thought, the nut within the shell,
Hard to obtain, yet tasting well;
And Wit, the rich grape sparkling free
In all its racy pungency.

Fair garden, for thy beauteous Eve
No gift I grant, no spell I weave;
For her own spells of form and mind
Charm the strong eye of Envy blind;
Her soul is Eden in its spring
Of pure, ethereal blossoming;
Thy fairy treasures I resign
To her soft cares and sway benign.
My task performed, the magic wand
Is falling from my powerless hand;
Yet when in future destined hours
Revive again my wizzard powers,
If any wish her bosom stirs,
My strongest talisman is hers.

ROWENA.

TO A BENIGHTED DOVE.

Emblem of Peace, thou lone one, rest!
  Nay, tremble not at Love's intent;
Why dost thou fluttering quit my breast,
  Nor leave one dweller innocent!

Alas! thy spotless form has fled,
  Like Fancy's rainbow dream of love,
Guiding our steps where angels tread,
  With light that only shines above.

Perchance a sainted spirit took
  Thy snowy wings to visit men;
But, grieving at their fallen look,
  Flew back in tears to peace again.

For, oh! what soul unknown to woe,
  Leaving its happy mansions o'er us,
Could bend at Sorrow's shrine below,
  Nor drop one tear in pity for us.

Oh! thou hadst that which false love brings,
  A chain of bliss, too soon to sever,
That o'er the heart one moment flings
  A light, to gleam,—and fade forever!

R. D.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

The Life of Theobald Wolfe Tone, Founder of the United Irish Society, and Adjutant General and Chef de Brigade in the Service of the French and Batavian Republics. Written by HIMSELF, and continued by his Son, WILLIAM THEOBALD WOLFE TONE; with a brief Account of his own Education and Campaigns under the Emperor Napoleon. In two volumes. Washington. 1826. 8vo. pp. 565 and 674.

THEOBALD WOLFE TONE, whose Life and writings are contained in these volumes, was a leading man among the malecontents during the revolution in Ireland, which broke out a short time before its union with Great Britain. The society of United Irishmen was formed, comprising men of all religious professions, whose object it was to deliver their country from the English yoke, and establish an independent government. They applied for aid to the court of France, and three several expeditions were despatched to assist their attempts, two of which were frustrated by contrary weather, and the third by an encounter with a British fleet. Of this society, Mr Tone was one of the principal founders and most distinguished leaders. He was their agent at the court of France for obtaining assistance, and accompanied the unsuccessful expedition. In the last of these, the vessel on board of which he sailed was taken. He was carried into Ireland, and condemned to death; but anticipated a public execution, by putting an end to his life in prison.

Mr Tone was the son of a coachmaker, and born in Dublin, in the year 1763. According to his own account of himself, he was idle at school, where he imbibed a passion for a military life. But this passion being overruled by his father, he entered Dublin College, where he was the second in a duel, in which one of the parties was killed. While yet an undergraduate, at the age of twenty-two years, he fell in love with a young lady in a very romantic manner, and, as he says, "one beautiful morning in the month of July, we ran off together, and were married." Soon after this, he left college, and the next year went to London to study the law,

and entered his name on the books of the Middle Temple. But he never endeavoured to qualify himself for the profession, disliking study in general, and that of the law in particular. After two years residence in London, he went with his wife and child to Dublin, where he turned his attention to politics, and wrote several pamphlets upon political subjects, which, however, did not attract much notice, or produce much effect.

In April, 1794, William Jackson, who had been employed by the French government to sound the Irish on their willingness to join the French, was arrested on the charge of high treason. Tone had conferred with him several times on the subject of his mission, and was strongly suspected by the English government. However, "by the most pressing instances with the government, his aristocratical friends succeeded in concluding an agreement, by which, on his engaging simply to leave Ireland, as soon as he could settle his private affairs, no *pursuits* were to be made against him." In June, 1794, he came to America, and in December of the same year, went to France, with a view of persuading the French government to assist in the liberation of Ireland.

Mr Tone's efforts and adventures, during the troubled period in which he lived, would have afforded materials for an interesting biography of moderate length. But the size of the present work exceeds all reasonable limits. It consists of two bulky octavos, in which the biographical account of Tone, as begun by himself and finished by his son, occupies only about a quarter of the first volume, and a few pages of the second. The remainder of the first volume is made up of his Journal while he remained in Ireland, actively engaged in the politics of the day. In this, his rides, dinners, conversations, political efforts, and the doings of the societies with which he was connected, are set forth with all the minuteness with which they were originally noted down. Some letters from his political friends are also given, which contain nothing to make them deserving of publication. Nearly three hundred pages of this same volume are occupied with his political essays, which, however well written, and however interesting to the Irish public at the time of their appearance, can have very little interest for the American public, after the lapse of more than thirty years.

The second volume is chiefly made up of his Journal while in France, as agent for the Irish insurgents. A part of this time he spent in Paris, and his Journal of this period contains little more than a succession of interviews with the French ministry and their agents, together with his reflections upon their proceedings, his own situation, and the state of Ireland. Speaking of himself, at the close of his residence in Paris, he says: "As to pleasure or amusement, I had very little. I formed, and endeavoured to form no connexions. I visited, and was visited by nobody, French or foreigner, and left Paris, after seven months' residence, without

being acquainted with a single family." In fact, his character, as agent of the Irish malecontents, required that he should keep himself secret, in order to avoid attracting the notice of the English government, so that it is easy to see there cannot be much in his narrative of his residence in Paris to instruct or amuse.

A part of his time was passed at Rennes and Brest, where he was attached to the army under General Hache, waiting for the sailing of the unsuccessful Irish expedition beforementioned. Subsequently he was again at Paris, attached to the army under the command of Buonaparte. His Journal, comprising these three periods, is spread through about four hundred pages, and all that it contains of any interest, might easily have been included in fifty. The rest of this volume consists principally of an appendix, containing an account of Tone's family after his death, and the campaigns of his son, the editor of this work, in the French army. The account of the family, written partly by his wife, was supposed to be called for by some misrepresentations in the London New Monthly Magazine; but there does not seem to have been any particular reason for publishing an account of the son's campaigns in connexion with the father's life. This, however, excepting the autobiography, is much the most interesting part of the book.

Granby; a Novel. In two volumes. New York. 1826. 12mo.

This is in many respects like the novels we used to have twenty years ago. It has little affinity with the new school of the last ten or twelve years. It brings us back to Life in London in modern days, with its Bond street loungers, its men and women of quality and fashion, with their routs and balls, their follies and vices. The author appears to feel the true old-fashioned necessity for making his hero turn out a lord in the end; even though he were a cobler in the beginning. And he is as careful, as ever was Regina Maria Roche, or Miss Burney herself, that there shall be no want of the misunderstandings, coldnesses, mistakes, and quarrels between lovers, in which these celebrated writers delighted; and which always were made to depend upon the want of common civility, common frankness, or common sense in the parties concerned.

The book does not keep up an equal interest, but sometimes excites an intense one. Its greatest merit is in the conception of character, and its developement in conversation and action. The dialogue is often entertaining and humorous; and displays good sense and right views of the world and mankind. The principal defect is in the parts assigned to different characters. They do not play out the play, as in duty bound, and as was to be expected from their importance in some of its stages, but leave it to halt through, as it can, without them.

Anniversary Address on the Progress of the Natural Sciences in the United States, delivered before the Lyceum of Natural History of New York, by JAMES E. DE KAY. New York, 1826. pp. 78.

THIS address contains an account of the principal works which have been published in this country, upon Mineralogy, Geology, Botany, and Zoology; together with a notice of the travels of individuals, and of the expeditions fitted out by the general government, with a view of enlarging the boundaries of natural science. It is a useful record of what has been already accomplished by our countrymen, and will prove, we hope, a stimulus to further exertion. It is encouraging to observe how much has been done, notwithstanding the want of that patronage, afforded by public and private munificence, which enables scientific men in Europe to devote their whole time to their favourite pursuits. Before the late war with Great Britain, the natural sciences were not extensively cultivated among us. Since that time, the rapid growth of our population, throughout the vast extent of our western territory, has opened the treasures of the wilderness, and invited the investigation of the naturalist. Curiosity has increased with the means of gratification. Scientific men throughout the country have become known to one another, and have united their efforts. A love of natural science has been widely diffused, and lectures on its various branches, as well as societies for their cultivation, and collections of specimens for their illustration, have become common. The attention of the general government has been turned to this subject. Enterprising Europeans have traversed our forests and climbed our mountains, and taught us what a rich harvest they afford to the scientific explorer. Several naturalists of distinguished excellence have appeared among our own countrymen. Their example, we trust, together with the spirit of inquiry which has been already awakened, will secure a rapid advancement to the natural sciences among us, commensurate with their importance and with the means which our country affords for their cultivation.

INTELLIGENCE.

Seminary for the Education of Instructers of Youth. The necessity of affording some systematic discipline in the science of education to young and inexperienced teachers, preparatory to their assuming the government and instruction of the common schools, has become so obvious that it cannot escape the slightest attention. We only hope that the first example of an institution for such a purpose in this country, may be offered from that state which first recognised the truly republi-

can principle of making *all* property responsible for the education of *all* children, without distinction, in the free schools. It seems to be only the completion of the system of public instruction, which has already affected so widely the character of our country, and to be essential to its greatest efficacy and happiest influence. "It may safely be computed," says Governor Lincoln, in his late speech to the legislature of Massachusetts, "that the number of male teachers engaged by the towns, annually, for the whole or parts of the year, does not fall short of twenty-five hundred different individuals, to which, if the number of female instructers and those employed in private schools be added, the aggregate would amount to many thousands. Knowledge in the art of governing, and a facility in communicating instruction, are attainments in the teacher, of indispensable importance to proficiency by the pupil. These talents are as much to be acquired by education, as are the sciences themselves. It will well merit the consideration of the legislature when discussing the expediency of the institution of the proposed seminary [for practical arts and sciences], whether provision for the preparation of a class of men to become the instructers of youth in the public schools, in branches of learning adapted to the present condition and wants of the country, is not among the highest of the inducements to the measure, and should be an object of primary and definite arrangement, in its adoption."

A new Digest of the Laws of the United States. T. F. Gordon, of the city of Philadelphia, has in preparation, and nearly ready for press, A Digest of the Laws of the United States, in which it is proposed,

I. To classify the laws under five great divisions or codes, viz. the Political, Civil, Commercial, Military, and Criminal Codes.

II. To reduce the statutory provisions into clear and distinct propositions, divested of duplicate enactments, and redundant and synonymous expressions; and to arrange such propositions, whatever may be the date of their enactment, in the natural order of their subjects respectively.

III. To introduce the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States on all subjects relating to constitutional and statutory law, into the text of the work as part of the law of the land.

IV. To give references to the statutes by their sections, and dates of enactment, and to the decisions of the court, by the names of the cases and by the page and volume of the reporter; so that a ready access may be had to the statutes and adjudged cases themselves, when it shall be desirable to examine them.

V. To arrange the propositions or *placita* of the work, numerically after the manner of the Code Napoleon; such arrangement serving as the readiest means for reference to its contents through a copious index, alphabetically digested, by which the inquirer will be immediately directed to his object without the examination of a whole chapter, section, or page.

The Digest will be a codal one, comprehending all the laws in force at the time of its publication. But that the work may exhibit a full historical view of the law, notes will be appended, containing a notice of repealed laws, on matters still subjected to legislative provision, and such statistical views as may with propriety be introduced.

Without entering upon the consideration of the benefits, supposed to flow from codification upon new, general, and philosophical principles, the accomplishment of which is the subject of very doubtful speculation,

it may be said that in the plan here proposed, there is nothing impracticable. Clearness in the arrangement, and correctness in extracting the spirit of the statutes, are the only qualities indispensable to success. The plan contemplates only to give the rule of the law, as it now exists, in the words of the law so far as they are necessary, with references whereby any aberration from the rule may be instantly detected.

Astorga Library. The Astorga library, recently purchased for the Faculty of Advocates at Edinburgh, is supposed to be the most curious collection of Spanish books existing out of Spain. It consists of about eight thousand volumes, and was sold for three thousand pounds. The collection is unrivalled (in so far as England is concerned) as to Romance, Chronicles, and Law. There is also a great deal of the Old Poetry, and a contemporary prose History of the Crusades, which is considered unique. The same body purchased only last year, a very fine Danish library entire at Copenhagen.

Rare Bird. A migratory or passenger pigeon of America, the *Columba Migratoria* of Wilson's Ornithology, was shot in Fife (Scotland) some time since, and is the first example of the kind which has occurred in Europe. It was probably forced thither by stress of weather. This species occurs in vast flocks on this continent, from Canada to the Gulf of Mexico, and is very destructive to corn-fields.

Swiss Journals. The number of journals published weekly or twice a week in Switzerland is surprising. Every Canton has at least one, and some of them more, besides monthly and other publications.

Dante. Professor Rezzi, librarian of the Barberini Library, is said to have made the valuable discovery of Dante, with the commentaries of Leanderio, full of marginal notes in the handwriting of Tasso. These notes, as may easily be supposed, are most learned and judicious, and show how profoundly the immortal author of the "Gerusalemme" had studied the "Divina Commedia."

Petrarca. Chevalier Arrighi, in a little work published last year at St Petersburg, announces that he has in his possession a most beautiful manuscript of all the "Rime" of Petrarca, which will serve to correct many errata in all the printed editions of the Canzoniere, as well as to restore to Petrarca, and to take from him, some disputed poems.

Venice. The population of Venice, which, in 1797, amounted to one hundred and eighteen thousand inhabitants, is not more at present than one hundred thousand, a third of whom are destitute of sufficient means of existence.

Excavations at Tusculum. The researches of Count Biondi on the site of the ancient town of Tusculum, produce the most satisfactory results. Several streets are already laid open, and also one of the gates of the town, which is supported by fluted pillars. An aqueduct and a public fountain are going to be laid open, as well as the fountain and the baths. Bas reliefs, inscriptions, and fresco paintings attract the attention of the learned. Count Biondi intends to publish a description of his valuable discoveries, illustrated by plates.

Manufacture of Silk in Ireland. The preparations for introducing the silk manufacture into Ireland, are in active progress. Twenty-six thousand white mulberry trees have been received at Cork, and are to be planted to supply food for the silk worms.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

AGRICULTURE.

Annual Address, delivered before the Rhode Island Society for the Encouragement of Domestic Industry, October 20, 1824. By William Hunter. Providence. 1826. 8vo. pp. 43.

"I state," says Mr Hunter, "from a high and recent authority reviewing all these subjects, that it is admitted on all hands that the rate of profit, in any particular department of industry can never either permanently exceed or fall below the rate of profit commonly obtained in other departments: but agriculture is a branch of industry which must be carried on in all times and in all circumstances. It is plain, however, that it would not be carried on if it did not yield as great a return for the capital and industry employed in it, as other businesses, and it is equally certain, that these would not be carried on if they yielded a less return than that derived from agriculture. It necessarily follows, therefore, that the rate of profit in agriculture is the standard rate—or that the average value of the returns obtained from capital employed in agricultural industry, must always govern the average value of those obtained from the capital employed in every other department."

BIOGRAPHY.

Memoir of Andrew Underhill, who departed this Life at Philadelphia, on the 18th of First Month, 1823, in the 26th year of his age. Philadelphia. 1826.

DRAMA.

The Resurrection of Jesus Christ; a Sacred Drama. Translated from the German. Boston. 18mo.

Family Jars; a Musical Farce, In two Acts. New York. 18mo. pp. 36.

EDUCATION.

A Greek Grammar, for the Use of Schools, from the German of Philip Buttmann. Second Edition of the Translation. Boston. 8vo. pp. 336.

An Abridgment of Lectures on Rhetoric. By Hugh Blair, D. D. Revised and corrected. To which is applied, a new method of Interrogating, by Samuel Worcester. Boston. 18mo. pp. 284.

A Report of the Superintendant of the Christ Church Sunday School; and an Account of the Plan of Instruction pursued in the School. Boston. 8vo. pp. 48.

A System of Geography, Ancient and Modern, for the Use of Schools. Accompanied with an Atlas, adapted to the work. By Jedidiah Morse, D. D. and Sydney E. Morse, A. M. Twenty-fifth edition. Boston. 12mo. pp. 342.

The Child's Arithmetic, or the Elements of Calculation, in the spirit of Pestalozzi's Method, for the Use of Children between the Ages of Three and Seven Years. By William B. Fowle, Instructer of the Monitorial School, Boston. Boston, 18mo. pp. 103.

We have examined this little book, and think that the plan and the execution of it are excellent. We confidently recommend it to the attention of parents and school committees, as singularly adapted to the purposes of a first book in arithmetic.

LAW.

A Treatise on the Laws of Obligations or Contracts, by M. Pothier. Translated from the French, with an Introduction, Appendix, and Notes, illustrative of the English Law on the subjects. By William David Evans, Esq., Barrister at Law. In two volumes. Philadelphia. 8vo.

Reports of Cases determined in the Circuit Court of the United States, for the Third Circuit, comprising the Districts of Pennsylvania and New Jersey, commencing at April term, 1823. Published from the manuscripts of the Hon. Bushrod Washington, one of the Judges of the Supreme Court of the United States. Philadelphia.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Supreme Court of Massachusetts. By Octavius Pickering, Counsellor at Law. No. I. Vol. 3. Boston. 8vo. pp. 152.

We understand that the Massachusetts Reports will be published hereafter in numbers of about one hundred and fifty pages each. This enables the reporter to put the profession in possession of the decisions of the Supreme Court much more promptly, than could be done by the former arrangement.

MEDICINE.

Discourses on Cold and Warm Bathing; with Remarks on the Effects of Drinking Cold Water in Warm Weather. By John G. Coffin, M. D. Second edition. Boston. 12mo. pp. 70.

We recommend these discourses to the attention of those who have never read them; as containing many useful precepts upon subjects which must be acknowledged to be important at all times, and particularly so at the present season of the year.

An Inquiry into the Nature and Treatment of Diabetes, Calculus, and other Affections of the Urinary Organs; with Remarks on the Importance of Attending to the State of the Urine in Organic Diseases of the Kidney and Bladder, &c. By William Prout, M. D. F. R. S. From the Second London Edition. With Notes and Additions, by B. S. Calhoun, M. D. Philadelphia. 8vo. pp. 308.

The American Family Physician. By the late Thomas Ewell, M. D. of Virginia. Addressed to the Heads of Families in the United States. Georgetown, D. C. 8vo. pp. 300.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Observations suggested by the late Occurrences in Charleston. By a Member of the Board of Public Works of the State of South Carolina. Columbia, S. C. 8vo. pp. 16.

The author of this pamphlet estimates, that there are in South Carolina, "five millions of acres of *pine barrens* and sand hills" now almost uninhabited; and endeavours to show by facts and arguments, that this immense tract of country may be advantageously cultivated in the production of *olive oil*, *wool*, *silk*, and *wine*, and thus be made to support a comparatively dense population, and add much to the wealth and power of the State. "The growing disposition for manufactures in the Northern States," he says, "indicates to us what we ought to do to supply them with the raw materials they want. Every effort of this kind tends to cement the bonds of our union, and this consideration, independent of any other, ought to induce us to avail ourselves of all the advantages which our soil and climate offer to our patriotism as well as to our industry."

The First Part, comprehending the Basis, of a New Musical Work, to be entitled Music as a Science, or Self-Instructer on the Piano Forte. Baltimore.

Six Months in the West Indies, in 1825. New York.

An Address, delivered before the Alumni of Columbia College, on the 3d of May, 1826, in the Hall of the College. By William Bard, A. B.

The Northern Traveller; containing the Routes to Niagara, Quebec, and the Springs; with Descriptions of the Principal Scenes, and Useful Hints to Strangers. With Maps and Copperplates. Second Edition. New York.

The Deformed Boy. By the Author of "Redwood," &c. Boston. 18mo. pp. 40.

PHILOSOPHY.

Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, held at Philadelphia, for Promoting Useful Knowledge. Vol. III. Part 1. New Series. By Marcus Bull. Philadelphia. 4to. pp. 63.

POETRY.

The Lay of Gratitude; consisting of Poems, occasioned by the recent Visit of La Fayette to the United States. By Daniel Bryan. Philadelphia. 8vo. pp. 104.

POLITICS.

Speech of Mr Webster, of Massachusetts, in the House of Representatives, on the Panamá Mission, delivered on the 14th of April, 1826. Washington. 8vo. pp. 61.

THEOLOGY.

The Substance of a Sermon, preached at the Methodist Chapel, Dover, N. H., on Thursday, April 13, 1826, the Day of Public Fast. By John Newland Maffit. Published by request. Concord, N. H. 8vo. pp. 18.

A bold reproof is contained in this discourse, which comes with great propriety from the pulpit: "Why is our native soil continually satiated with the blood of her sons, shed by the hand of *fashionable murderers*, in violation of all moral obligation? And why are these enormities so generally regarded either with indifference or with approbation and applause?"

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A Sermon, by the venerated President Edwards, rewritten, so as to retain his Thoughts in a Modern Style. By Daniel A. Clark. Amherst. 1826. 8vo. pp. 20.

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A Sermon, preached at the opening of the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church, in the United States, on Thursday, May 18, 1826. By Stephen N. Rowan, D. D.

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This work is to be published in numbers, and when complete, will make two volumes.

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REVIEWS.

The Merry Tales of the Three Wise Men of Gotham. Edited by the Author of "John Bull in America." New York. 1826. 12mo. pp. 324.

WE recommend to all lovers of amusement to become possessed of this volume, and to read it for themselves. For our own part, we shall barely give so much of an account of it, as will add to our recommendation the corroborating inducement of a sample of its contents. Mr Owen's New Plan of Society, the Common Law, and the Celestial Science of Craniology, are the objects of Mr Paulding's satire; and it is fortunate, perhaps, for the Harmonists, the Lawyers, and the Craniologists, that ridicule is no test of truth. The Three Wise Men of Gotham, of whom every body has heard, were, it seems, three maltreated and disappointed philosophers, sailing, or rather floating, over the ocean in full belief of the theory of concentric spheres, and confidently expecting to find within the earth that final triumph of truth over falsehood, of which they despaired without it.

The first of the renowned trio, is a Man Machine, the Pupil of "Circumstances," brought up in a community, a new society devoted to the spinning of cotton and the perfectibility of man. The cream of the principles, upon which this new society was founded, are, in short, as follows; that man is the creature of circumstances; and that he may, by the proper application of circumstances, be made any thing you please; that all the sin and misery, the crimes and punishments, of which the world has been full, are only the result of the erroneous training, to which mankind have been subjected for the last six thousand years.

That hence the human machine is no more accountable for its actions than the cotton machine, since both act precisely according to the influence of circumstances, and, consequently, to punish a man, is as absurd as to punish a spinning jenny.

"Besides this, it is demonstrable, that criminal laws, instead of preventing, create crime, by making that criminal which was before innocent. I recollect hearing an observation made by an innocent man, who had been forced into the commission of murder, by the erroneous system of education pursued for the last six thousand years, which made a great impression upon me, and gave the first hint of my New View of Society. 'Alas!' said the unfortunate, or as the vulgar say, guilty man—'alas! what an unlucky being am I. If society had not thought proper to punish murder, I might have passed for an innocent man.' By following this train of reasoning we shall find that the sole use of criminal law is to create criminals, who are only so because the law capriciously inflicts punishments upon certain acts which would otherwise be perfectly innocent."

It follows, that law and religion will be perfectly useless in reforming and perfecting mankind, and that "nothing is wanting to restrain these crying evils, and repair as far as possible the miseries inflicted on the Man Machine for the last six thousand years, by an absurd and erroneous system of education, than an habitual, invariable, and inflexible adherence to the sublime maxim, *that self-love, properly understood and uniformly practised, is the basis of all virtue as well as happiness in the social state.*"

The master of this hopeful community finds strange difficulties in the reduction of his theory to practice, which sometimes go nigh to unsettle the faith of his pupils.

But these "counteracting principles," as our master called them, and which I suspect were nothing more than those passions which are supposed by some ignorant people to be implanted in human nature, were always getting between his legs, as it were, and tripping up his theory. Emulation was continually peeping forth, in one wicked little rogue outrunning another, and thus mortifying his feelings. In wrestling, the stronger machine was very apt to impose upon the weaker, by throwing it down with as little ceremony as possible. At leap-frog, a mischievous urchin would sometimes designedly bump a little fellow down on his nose, by not leaping high enough. In short, these "counteracting principles" were so troublesome and inconvenient, that my master more than once wished them fairly at the d—l, they stood so in the way of the perfectibility of the Man Machine.

My master was indeed sometimes highly provoked at these "counteracting principles," thus eternally thrusting their noses into his plan of perfectibility. It puzzled him confoundedly to find where his theory was out at the elbows. At last he discovered that his children were not young enough to give his system a fair chance. It was his opinion that children received those impressions which give a decided direction to their future character, almost the moment they are born. Nay, he went still further, and maintained, with great appearance of reason, that they took special notice of every thing that happened at the time, he himself recollecting perfectly well, being very much alarmed, when the nurse first took him in her arms, lest she should let him fall on the floor.

Accordingly he determined to go to the fountain head, by introducing into the establishment the institution of matrimony, and having the children begotten to his hands. "I shall take them *ab ovo*," said he, a phrase of which I have since learned the meaning, although at that time I did not exactly comprehend it. The first born of this new and perfect race in perspective, was a little boy, who from the moment of his birth was allowed to hear nothing but the repetition of the great precept, not to harm his play-fellows, but to do all in his power to make them happy. At three years old he was launched into the play ground, and made his debut by biting the finger of one of the matrons who presided over our sports, and who attempted forcibly to keep him from indulging the instinct of the Man Machine, for dabbling in a mud-puddle. Our master cast about for the "counteracting principle" that had produced this enormity, that he might give it a sound drubbing, and to his great satisfaction discovered it in a habit, which the mother had a long time indulged, of biting her nails. This practice was strictly forbidden; but as one of the fundamental principles of my master was, that no punishments were necessary to keep the Man Machine in order, any more than the steam engine, nobody minded the prohibition, and the women bit their nails, as usual, when vexed or perplexed. Notwithstanding the all-powerful precept which lies at the root of the perfectibility of the Man Machine, and which was not spared upon the little biting boy, there was some "counteracting principle" which certainly baffled detection, or at least opposition. By the time he was twelve years old the machine became so completely out of order, that my master turned him out of the establishment as a disgrace to his theory. * *

My master was, in truth, for a long while the victim of "counteracting circumstances;" he at one time, as I have heard, had serious thoughts of cutting off all the women's noses, to bring them to a level, and so organizing his men and women machines, by the mere force of education, as that they should conform to the law of nature which ordains, that every bird shall lay only so many

eggs within a certain period. He had no doubt of bringing this about, if he could only begin *ab ovo*, and dodge his old enemies the "counteracting circumstances."

But he was for some time deterred from this plan by the astounding objection that, though he might regulate the number of children, it would be difficult, if not impossible, to regulate their looks, and prevent one from being handsomer than another. He had no doubt that nature produced none of these ridiculous inconsistencies, but that they were the offspring of that diabolical system of education under which mankind had groaned for the last six thousand years. "Some pigs," quoth he, "are, it is true, handsomer than others—but then the pig is sophisticated by associating with man, and suffering under the influence of the counteracting circumstances. Doubtless all young wild boars are perfectly equal in a state of nature. I will inquire into these matters." His inquiries ended, I imagine, in conviction, for he attempted some reforms in these matters; which caused so much dissatisfaction among our women, that they came near seceding in a body, and thus putting an end to all prospect of the perfectibility of mankind. My master accordingly gave up the point, satisfied that, though he might regulate the man machine to some little purpose, the woman machine was too much under the influence of the "counteracting principles," ever to become perfect, without an entire new organization.

In spite of all the counteracting circumstances, however, our philosopher becomes a very tolerable man machine; when, suddenly, he is let loose upon the world by the accession to a large property.

My views, perceptions, and opinions were for a time changed, as if by magic. When I had nothing I was a great admirer of a community of goods—now I was rich I turned up my nose at the very idea of such an odd, ridiculous notion, and argued with my master on the subject with a degree of independence at which he was quite astonished. I offered to bet him a round sum to back my opinions, and this was better than all his first principles put together. My master proposed to make me treasurer, but as there was no common fund, but what I might contribute, I resisted the tempting offer of being allowed to take care of my own money, manfully. In an evil hour, I determined to give up all the delights of perfectibility—to yield to the force of the counteracting circumstance—to follow the bent of the enlarged principle of social self-love, and return to the great world again, to set a good example and reform its abuses. Before I went, I resigned my portion of the village, the land and its improvements, to the remnant of the community that had laboured with me, after which I sallied forth,

full of hopes, fears, and anticipations of I knew not what. I remember the first thing that alarmed me in my *début*, was seeing two pigs fighting, an atrocity which none of the orderly swine brought up under the New View of Society ever were guilty of while in a perfect state. "They are terribly under the influence of the counteracting principles," said I, to a person who happened to be near.

"Of what?" said he, turning quick upon me.

"Of the counteracting principles," said I.

"They are under the influence of passion," said he.

"My dear sir, there are no such things as the passions—they are nothing but circumstances."

"Who told you so?" replied he, eyeing me with a queer look, half surprised and half angry.

"My master—he can prove to you, by his precepts, if not by his example, that there are no such things in his New View of Society, as passions. They are nothing but circumstances and counteracting principles, as I said before."

"Tut," replied he—"'t is only a new name for an old thing—your master, whoever he is, may call black white, or white black, yet that won't alter the colour."

"I see you have never read the New View of Society—you are suffering all the evils, miseries, and inconsistences of that abominable system of education which has prevailed in the world for the last six thousand years. You have 'been taught crime from your youth,' as my master says, and I dare affirm, will one day be unjustly subjected to punishment for those very offences which it was impossible you should not commit."

"Abominable system of education! Taught crime from my youth! Punished for offences it was impossible I should not commit! What do you mean, sir?" cried he, in a passion.

"I mean," said I, with perfect politeness—"I mean that it is more than an equal chance that you will one day be hanged by the mere 'force of circumstances'—as my master says."

Upon this the imperfect Man Machine unluckily gave way to the rascally counteracting principles, and came forward with an evident intention to knock me down.

"I 'll teach you to throw out reflections upon me"—

"My dear Man Machine—I meant no reflection,—none in the world—if you should happen to be hanged it will not be your fault—it will be the fault of your education, for which you are no more accountable than for your subsequent actions. If any body deserves to be hanged, it is your father and mother, who brought you up in a profound ignorance of the 'counteracting principles,' and that delightful self-love, which is the basis of all social happiness."

"My good friend," replied he, in a tone of contempt—"you are either a fool or a madman—I can't tell which."

"I am a philosopher."

"The difference is not much now-a-days," quoth he—and coolly turned away.

He attempts to introduce the system of perfectibility and equality upon his estate, and is so successful in instilling its fundamental principles, that his servants finally vote him out of his house and lands for an infringement of his own precepts. He cannot consistently resist, and accordingly retires with a good grace, is put into a mad-house, crosses the Atlantic, and after a variety of disappointments and misfortunes, during all of which he held fast his principles and his integrity, we have him fairly lodged in the Bowl, and embarked in quest of the concentric spheres.

The second philosopher is a martyr to the "Perfection of Reason," or the Wisdom of Ages, or in other words, the Common Law. A profound reverence for this science he received as part of his inheritance; and in the course of a short period, after serving him a variety of bad tricks, it helps him to get rid of the other parts.

At length an aged person, upon whose recollection of the facts connected with the former history of the estate, I had relied materially in maintaining my title, died. The very next term, the plaintiff was ready, and the trial came on. It was not the absence of one of his witnesses, but the presence of one of mine, that was so inconvenient to him. The trial occupied three days—one in hearing testimony—and two in hearing speeches, which, after all, signified nothing, as it appeared. It was the cases cited, that decided the question of right. My counsel cited Holt—but he was knocked down by chief justice Buller, who butted him quite out of court. After this first round they took a little breath, and to it again. The opposite counsel cited Strange—and mine Espinasse—they quoted Fonblanque—and we Dallas—"Pish," said they, "this is only a *dictum* of one of our own judges." "Your honour will turn to page 116, vol. 112, Troutback *vs.* Sturgeon." "Your honour," cried we, "will please to turn to page 250, vol. 99, Crane *vs.* Peacock." "Lord Coke says"—"Lord Mansfield affirms, your honour, in the famous case of Cock-a-doodle manor, which settled the principle." This last blow ended the second round, and in fact decided the question in my favour. Lord Mansfield carried all before him, and our adversaries never held up their heads afterwards. They gave in at the third round, with a faint effort at milling a little with Glanville, and a few of the old school fancy.

The judge was at last permitted to say a little for himself. In truth, I began to think he was to have nothing to do in the business, and that my cause was to be tried by the judges of England, not those of my own country. I have not sufficient recollection of his charge to repeat it, but I remember his decision turned altogether on the authority of Lord Mansfield. Such was his exemplary modesty, that he never intruded his own opinions, or appeared to consult his own judgment. This seemed rather odd to me, although I had by this time become pretty well accustomed to it. I could not help thinking that a plain man, of good judgment and acquirements, who had heard all the testimony appertaining to this special case, was better qualified to decide upon it, than even my Lord Mansfield—meaning no disrespect to his lordship—who died long ago, and never dreamed of me, my adversary, or my cause. Thanks, however, to my lord, to whom I shall ever feel grateful, and who I have no doubt was a very clever fellow, I gained my suit, and rejoiced mightily in the laws, which were now entirely restored to my good graces.

But I might have kept my joy for a better opportunity. My honest friend was not satisfied, like me, with my Lord Mansfield's decision. He appealed to a superior court—but luckily Lord Mansfield reigned paramount there also, and again I was triumphant. It cost me all the proceeds of my estate that year though; it was one of Pyrrhus's victories. My honest friend again appealed to a still higher court; I thought there was no end to them. Here he kept me dangling for three years more, waiting, as he afterwards boasted, for some new decision of an English judge, that should overthrow Lord Mansfield's doctrine, and turn it upside down. At length such a decision was made by a sage of the bench; one, in fact, that seemed made exactly to suit his purpose. It was directly in the teeth of his lordship, and unsettled the law of at least half a century. In charging the jury, his honour delivered himself to to this effect:

"Gentlemen of the jury—The perfection and beauty of the law consists in this; that it is not only a rule of action, but a rule which, being founded in the perfection of reason and the wisdom of ages, is not liable to those changes, to which all else is subjected in this world. Such is the stability of this rule of action, that a man may at all times know the extent of his rights and his duties, and the course necessary for him to pursue, in order to secure those rights and perform those duties. Law is, in fact, the result of the perfection of reason, based on the accumulated wisdom of ages. This may be most especially affirmed of the common law, which is expressly founded upon maxims and practices, so ancient that the memory of man runneth not to the contrary thereof." * * *

"From these positions it results, gentlemen of the jury, that you will find a verdict for the plaintiff. I am free to confess, that had the decision of Lord Mansfield, in the matter of the manor of Cock-a-doodle, been posterior to that of my lord chief justice Bridlegoose, I should have given an opinion directly to the contrary. The decision of judge Bridlegoose, being the latest, is certainly the best, as he has the advantage not only of Lord Mansfield's, but his own wisdom besides, to direct him—which is two to one at least. I acknowledge it as a hard case, gentlemen, a very hard case—and I could almost wish judge Bridlegoose had delayed his opinion till this suit was decided. The defendant has, however, his remedy at law. He can wait till a new opinion comes out, in opposition to judge Bridlegoose, and then commence a suit for the recovery of his property."

What a pity Lord Mansfield had not been a little later in coming into the world! I should have been a rich man probably to this day, in spite of the perfection of reason. As it was, I lost my estate, only because judge Bridlegoose, unfortunately for me, had the last word. I would have appealed from this decision, but unluckily there was no court to appeal to—we had got to the top of the ladder, and there was an end to the perfection of reason.

Having lost his property, he begins to entertain doubts of the perfection of reason, and arrives finally at the following conclusions.

Gentlemen, I hope you will not think me unreasonable, if, by this time, I begin to lose my respect for the perfection of reason. If my worthy uncle had risen from the grave, I don't think he could have restored it to my good graces. Like a mistress, so full of caprices, contradictions, and coquetries, that she at last tires out and disgusts the most ardent admirer, the perfection of reason had played me so many tricks, that I turned my back on it in utter disgust. It appeared to me that whatever the law might have been in ages of comparative ignorance and simplicity, it had now become so refined in its distinctions—so subtle in its metaphysics—so complicated and contradictory in its decisions—so wearisome and capricious in its sinuosities, as to be compared to nothing but an Indian trail through some pathless wilderness, invisible to all eyes, untraceable by all feet, save those only which are guided by an infallible instinct, the joint offspring of nature and necessity. So far from being the perfection of reason, it seemed to me nothing more than the perfection of quibbling sophistry. Instead of a plain, straight forward rule of action, simple in itself and easy of comprehension to those who are to be governed by its provisions, it appeared to my awakened senses little else than a farrago of contradictory decisions, pursued through all the mazes of inextricable subtilty into the obscurity

of fathomless darkness—a jumble—a chaos without a sun to enlighten, or a hand powerful enough to reduce it to order and beauty. In short, under the influence of my perpetual disappointments at the hands of the perfection of reason, I actually rejoiced that I had now nothing left in the world, and was consequently above the laws. If any thing can reconcile a reasonable man to the ills of poverty, it is the consoling reflection, that he has passed *into* that bourne where the lawyers cease from troubling, and the client is at rest.

The remainder of my story is soon told. I was a ruined man, and that, too, at the hands of the perfection of reason. Being without the good things of this world, there was nothing left me, but to turn philosopher, and despise them. Indeed, I have always observed, that in proportion as a man gets money he contemns wisdom, just as he who becomes poor despises wealth and takes to wisdom. Money is certainly the root of all evil, as every man is convinced the moment he sees it in the hands of others. There are three things which constitute as it were the three sheet anchors that keep a man riding steady in the same roadstead all his life—property, friends, and a home. My fortune had gone off with honest *Caveat Emptor* and *Locus in quo*—my friends followed closely after—and as to home—I was a bachelor, and a bachelor has no home.

Of the life of the Craniologist, who has been equally the victim of his favourite science, but who, although an egregious dupe, does not realize it like his fellow travellers, we can only give a few paragraphs in conclusion.

A gentleman just arrived from abroad, brought with him, and presented to our society, a cast which he assured me was an exact representation of the skull of Servin, immortalized in Sully's Memoirs, as a monster compounded of the sublimest genius and the most grovelling, detestable vices. On examination, I discovered, to my infinite delight, that the cerebral developement exhibited the character and propensities of Servin, with a degree of precision, that, if known, would silence all cavilling, and go far to establish my system beyond question. I determined at once to bring it into the field in opposition to the head of king Robert. and let them fight it out before the public. Accordingly I announced the receipt of my treasures, and invited all sceptics to come and receive a demonstration of the sublime truths of phrenology. I had not seen such an audience for many a day, although the evening was stormy, and commenced my lecture on Servin's head, in high spirits. I pointed out the developement so exactly corresponding with the character—here the organ of ideality, announcing the extent of his genius—and there the organ of cunning

and cruelty, announcing the extent of his crimes and duplicity. Here the organ of tune, demonstrating his taste for music; there the organ of languages, exemplifying his unequalled capacity for their acquirement. Here philoprogenitiveness—there destructiveness—here secretiveness—there concentrativeness. In short, I proved that the head could have belonged to none but a person of great intellectual capacity, contrasted with equal depravity. In the triumph of my heart, I held it up to the audience as the hero of phrenology, the invincible rival and conqueror of king Robert. I shook it in the faces of the unbelievers, and handled it at length with so little discretion, that it fell from my grasp upon the floor, and the plaster flew about in all directions. I hastened to lift it up again, and, presenting it to the light, was struck with horror and dismay. The scaling of the plaster had exposed to view the rude outlines of one of those wooden heads which sometimes ornament the coasting vessels of my native country. I had not the presence of mind to put it out of sight, but stood in stupifying embarrassment, without uttering a word, when I was at length roused by a hoarse voice, crying out, 'D—n my eyes, Tom, isn't that the head of the Lovely Nancy, that some rascally land-lubber stole from her bows the other night?' Tom immediately confirmed this with a round sailor's oath, adding, 'T is a lucky godsend that we came in here for a harbour from the storm to-night, to unkennel this thief of the world, with his outlandish gibberish about serving heads; if this is the way he serves them, he 'll get served with a baker's dozen at the gangway before long.' So saying, the two gallant tars advanced to the table, and, seizing the head of the Lovely Nancy, bore it off in triumph, amid shouts of laughter on all sides.

Mr Le Peigne, or in other words Mr Combe, for such is the appellation of this third sage, chooses by craniology, a partner in business, a clerk, and a wife. His partner pockets his capital, and absconds with it; his clerk follows suit; and his wife fulfils her destiny by running off with another and a preceding husband, which had not been set down in her cerebral developement.

The satire, as will be perceived, is successful, but is drawn out at too great a length. In fact, the author has found it impossible to keep himself up to the proper pitch through the whole work. There is a want of unity in the execution; the writer forgets himself, and falls to arguing the matter in good sober earnest, and so do his characters. Still, although there are many pages, which are, from this cause, dull and prosing, upon the whole, there is much entertainment to be derived from it by any one who is diposed to have a good-natured laugh at the absurdities and inconsistencies of the wise men of the earth.

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1. *A Discourse delivered before the Society for the Commemoration of the Landing of William Penn, on the 24th of October* 1825. By C. J. Ingersoll. Philadelphia. 1825. 8vo. pp. 36.
2. *Facts and Arguments in favour of adopting Railways in preference to Canals, in the State of Pennsylvania; to which are added a few Remarks on the subject of Internal Improvements.* Fourth Edition. Philadelphia. 1825. 8vo. pp. 68.
3. *Address of the Harrisburg Convention to the Citizens of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.* Philadelphia. 1825. 8vo. pp. 24.
4. *The First Annual Report of the Acting Committee of the Society for the Promotion of Internal Improvement in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania.* Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 45.

We have thrown these pamphlets together for the purpose of calling the attention of our readers to the principal subject discussed in them, namely, the progress of internal improvement in our sister state of Pennsylvania. They disclose the deep interest which her intelligent citizens feel, in the great designs of industry, enterprise, and foresight, which occupy, at the present time, the whole American nation. Pennsylvania is powerful and wealthy, and possessed of intrinsic resources, which are surpassed in very few sections of the Union. She is powerful in the numbers of her industrious population, in the vast amount of her circulating and her fixed capital, in the extent of her territory, and still more in the great streams which intersect and unite the various portions of it; in the subterraneous riches of her fertile soil, and in the strength of her position, resting at once upon the Atlantic ocean, the Lakes, and the West. Her mineral riches, and her manufactures, seem to prompt and stimulate her to the duty of facilitating the means of domestic intercourse, that commerce which is the best, the surest foundation of our mercantile prosperity. We shall gather from the tracts before us, and from other sources, particularly from several publications of the Society for the Promotion of Internal Improvement, some facts, which we deem valuable in their relation to the welfare of the Union, although more immediately concerning that of Pennsylvania.

We begin with a brief account of the meritorious exertions of the Society abovementioned. This association was organized

near the close of the year 1824, comprising forty-eight actual members, among the first in character in the state, together with many honourary members. It has been zealously and assiduously engaged, ever since then, in the prosecution of the patriotic objects for which it was formed; and in various ways it has been eminently useful. The acting committee, of which Mr Matthew Carey is chairman, have proved indefatigable in their endeavours to excite and animate public spirit on the subject of internal improvement, and to circulate enlightened opinions and important facts, for the instruction of the people. We have perused a variety of tracts prepared and printed by this society, replete with statements and reasonings of the most salutary tendency. In consequence of its suggestion, also, a state convention assembled at Harrisburg in August 1825, for the sole purpose of concentrating the sentiments of the people, and causing them to act in concert, upon the subject of internal improvement, and particularly in regard to opening a communication between the eastern and western waters of the state. This convention was unanimous in the belief that such a communication was "indispensably necessary to maintain the character and standing of the state, and to preserve her strength and resources." Its Address, enforcing these principles, is one of the pieces named at the head of this article.

But the most important act of the society, in our apprehension, has been the appointment of Mr William Strickland as their agent to collect information in Europe, "of all the valuable improvements in the construction of canals, roads, rail-ways, bridges, steam-engines, and all other information calculated to promote the object of the society." The event proved the usefulness of this mission, and their judicious selection of a gentleman to be employed in it;—a mission, which has been happily called by Mr Ingersoll, "a more important embassy than any the nation supports in Europe." Mr Strickland spent the chief part of the last year in discharging the duty assigned him; and enjoyed every advantage which his own character, and the influence of this nation, could procure him, from the most eminent men of science in Great Britain, and those of the highest attainments and reputation in the useful arts. Indeed, President Adams embraced the occasion to testify his good will towards the object, by causing Mr Strickland to be furnished with letters from the department of state, recommending him to the kind offices of the public agent of the United States abroad. The liberal treatment, which he received in Great Britain, shall be described in the words of the society's committee.

It is a just tribute, and one which is rendered with peculiar satisfaction to those who are so well entitled to it, to state to the society, that from every gentleman of science and attainments in those branches of knowledge and the arts which are particularly connected with civil engineering, Mr Strickland received the most liberal and extensive assistance. The bureaus of the British engineers of the first rank and acknowledged usefulness, the cabinets of men of science in England, Ireland, and Scotland, were freely thrown open to him; and all they had acquired by diligent study and experiment, all they had done in the erection of the great works which are the just and merited pride of those countries, and the principal sources of their wealth and prosperity, were placed at his disposal. Science and philosophy and the liberal arts are usually found in the possession of men of enlarged and expanded views and of the most generous purposes. It is one of the best effects of knowledge and intelligence, that they liberalize the heart, and unshackle it from the influence and power of prejudice and from the bonds of local interests. The best and the most pleasing testimony of the truth of these principles has been exhibited by the conduct of the engineers of England, Scotland, and Ireland, to Mr Strickland. *Report*, p. 17.

Very exact instructions were given to Mr Strickland by the society's committee, as to the objects to which his attention should be directed, and the most efficacious means of acquiring the desired intelligence. He was required to make an exact record of all the valuable knowledge he should gain, of all the facts which he could collect in reference to the design of his mission, and to transmit the result in accurate memoirs or reports for the use of the society. And he was charged to observe that it was not "a knowledge of abstract principles, nor an indefinite and general account of their application to the great works of Europe," which the society wished to possess; but a detailed and precise account of "the means of executing all those works in the best manner, and with the greatest economy and certainty." In execution of his undertaking Mr Strickland has prepared and transmitted Reports on Canals; on Canal Boats; on the Dublin Breakwater and Harbour; on Cranes and Hoisting Machines; on Tunnelling; on Railways; on Turnkpike Roads; on the Manufacture of Iron, and of Oil and Coal Gas; on the Manufacture of Coke, and of Blister and Cast Steel; and on Rollers of Copper; all accompanied with minute plans, drawings, sections and estimates. In addition to this, he collected a body of the most useful practical publications on these subjects, by Smeaton, Peckam, Tredgold, Buchanan, Rondelet, Cumming, and other

writers on practical mechanics and civil engineering. Mr Strickland is now engaged in preparing his Reports for publication; and they will disseminate a mass of information, on the important subjects which they embrace, from which we may confidently expect that the most beneficial results will ensue to every part of the United States.

We have entered thus particularly into the proceedings of the Pennsylvania Society, because however local may be its immediate object, its indirect operation is evidently and eminently national. Indeed the authors of the several tracts before us, while they manifest a laudable pride in the prosperity of their own State, express an ardor for the welfare of all America, as earnest and sincere as it is patriotic. Their motto is "Our country, our whole country." Yet they declare a partiality for the fortunes of Pennsylvania, which, without making any invidious comparisons, we, although citizens of another State, can readily admit to be well founded.

Our mineral treasures," observes one of them, "exceed those of any state in the Union; treasures far more valuable than the mines of Potosi or Golconda. Coal, of every variety of species, salt, iron, lead, copper, sulphur, alum, ochres, limestone, marble, marl, clay, and many other minerals, excellent in quality, and and inexhaustible in quantity, are diffused throughout our territory. *Facts in Favour of Railways*, p. 55.

Of these mineral productions of Pennsylvania, two or three are entitled to separate consideration. The manufacture of salt is already a very productive source of wealth. It was ascertained a few years since, that upon the margin of the river Alleghany, and of the waters communicating with it, salt water might be procured in any quantity, by boring the earth to the depth of four or five hundred feet. Upon the Connemaugh, the Kiskeminetas, and the Alleghany, thirty-eight salt-works have been established; and many more are in the course of preparation; which, in consequence of the abundance of coal in that region, can be wrought with cheapness and ease. In the year year 1825, seventy-five thousand barrels of salt were made at the Connemaugh and Kiskeminetas salt-works; and it is proved, that, if the facilities for internal communication were suitably increased, this necessary of life could be furnished to all the State, without encouraging foreign industry by its importation, and at a diminished price.

But the beneficial effects on the industry of the State, which may be anticipated from the rich stores of this mineral, great as

they are, sink into insignificance, when compared with the mighty consequences of opening her inexhaustible mines of coal and iron, whose fecundity and value are but just beginning to be duly appreciated. The following passage in Mr Ingersoll's Discourse contains a bold, but hardly an extravagant picture, of the probable effects of the abundance of her fossil coal upon the prosperity of Pennsylvania.

The wharves on the Schuylkill * * are, for the first time, resorted to by burthensome vessels from over sea, for freights of that inestimable fuel contributed by the mother earth of Pennsylvania, in a mineral more valuable than the precious metals. Poured in for consumption and exportation, as it is, from the shores of the Lehigh and the Susquehanna, as well as the Schuylkill, when we advert to what the coal trade has done for the port of London, it is not fanciful to anticipate revolutions in commerce, manufactures, and capital, which it is destined to bring about here. * * Public conception is not yet awakened to this vital resource, just emerging from the bosom of the State; and we do not foresee its effects on manufactures and commerce, while considering it as a substitute for wood for our consumption as fuel. * * When we advert to the fact, that almost every part of Pennsylvania abounds with every variety of this fossil, and with all kinds of iron ores, wanting nothing but facilities for transportation to market, a vast increase of manufactures, of coasting and foreign trade, and of homebred seamen for our commercial and military marine, must be perceived as the natural offspring. The modern experience of England proves this to be no sanguine expectation. In its effects on the manufactures, commerce, wealth, and power of Great Britain * * the coal trade has transcended all calculation. pp. 7—9.

It is not our purpose to follow Mr Ingersoll in his eloquent exposition of the benevolent, the literary, and the scientific institutions, which have so long pre-eminently distinguished Pennsylvania, and its commercial capital, Philadelphia, and of which he speaks with filial enthusiasm. Nor can we dwell upon the developement of manufacturing industry, for which that State is equally distinguished; observing only in passing, that we would render the most grateful acknowledgments to that truly enlightened policy, which has actuated many of her eminent citizens, in their views of the great questions of domestic improvement. Her example, in this respect, is pregnant with instruction, and especially so to us of these Northern states, whose hardy and laborious population, while the profits of our foreign commerce gradually diminish, are rapidly tending to employ our territorial

resources, our skill, our thrift, and our capital, in the productive labours of domestic industry, the firmest basis of a nation's wealth. Whilst we emulate the praiseworthy spirit of Pennsylvania, we entertain no jealousy of her past, or of her prospective advancement, either in the ornamental and polished arts of civilization, or in the more homely, but also more substantial products of merely useful labour. And her patriotic inhabitants have our hearty wishes for the complete success of the great plans of internal improvement, in which they are now embarked.

Brambletye House; or Cavaliers and Roundheads. A Novel. By one of the Authors of the "Rejected Addresses." Boston. 1826. 3 Vols. 12mo.

Novel writing is a peculiar business; and no one can attain to eminent success in it, who is not gifted with the peculiar powers and qualities proper to this occupation, as well as with general talent. Instances in illustration of this principle are frequently occurring, and this work is one of them. Mr Smith (we believe he is the acknowledged author of Brambletye House), in the "Rejected Addresses" and in more recent publications, has exhibited most of the faculties, which an accomplished writer must possess. He has shown, besides a remarkable power of imitation, much wit and more humour, some genius for poetry, and uncommon command of language. And now, when the circulatating libraries are full of works of this class, which may well serve as models, to the most ambitious aspirant, our author, after long practice, concentrates his faculties in an elaborate effort, the success of which is to place him by the side of the great novelists of the day. In this purpose he has failed; but he has not effaced the impression which his other books have given, for he has failed as one might fail, who nevertheless possessed a highly gifted and cultivated intellect.

Parts of this work are very excellent; and if the whole were cut into pieces few of them would be the worse for the operation. If it be considered only as a bundle of sketches, it might be highly praised, for many of them are well drawn. But as a whole, as one story, it is deficient, for it wants that interest which can be created and sustained only by a well contrived and well conducted tale. There is so little unity of action, that it requires

some effort of memory to connect the different anecdotes together. If our author wishes to introduce us to Milton or old Izaak Walton, an episode is set a going which carries the reader at once to the spot where he may find them, and there drops him. It is said that all plants possess the power of sending their roots and branches wherever nutriment may be found; just so this story branches forth to catch Cromwell in council, or Lord Rochester in a frolic, or London on fire, or any thing else which can keep life in it; but unhappily these branches diverge in such strange directions, and are so diverse from each other, that they are traced to the same root with no small effort, if at all.

Of course we shall not attempt a minute analysis of such a story as this; suffice it say, that the curtain rises, and discovers Sir John Compton, the lord of Brambletye House, and a jolly old Cavalier, plotting to bring back Charles II. He is seized, escapes to the continent, and joins the king. His son Jocelyn, the hero, is also arrested, carried before Cromwell, and by his order imprisoned; but he, too, finally escapes and joins his father. After the restoration, Jocelyn becomes a courtier, and in the course of one of his adventures falls in love with a young lady who is supposed to be the daughter of the regicide Wilmot, a connexion which is extremely troublesome to our hero. But in due season she proves to be the descendant and heiress of the elder branch of the Compton family, who had been at feud with Sir John and his kin, and Jocelyn's marriage with her, reconciles the members and re-establishes the fortunes of his house.

The Comptons, father and son, by ways and means "too tedious to mention," contrive to make us acquainted with most of the eminent men of that great day; and if sometimes the introduction is successfully accomplished, at others it is a little awkward.

The distance between our author and his great exemplar, Scott, is most manifest in the exhibition of historical characters. Scott never introduces any one, without affecting the reader's impressions concerning him, whatever they may have been. If he does nothing else, he gives new force and distinctness to our existing opinions; and if his notions differ from ours, they are usually, at least for a season, substituted for our own, by something very like scenic illusion. We feel that we have received new ideas, more accurate and well defined conceptions, of one whose name we had often met with. But, if a well read Sophomore in some respectable college, were told to take for his theme, the appearance, demeanour, and general characteristics of

Milton, for instance, he would open his books, embody the results of his researches, and revive the impressions which we had formerly obtained from sources common to him and to us;—and this is precisely what Mr Smith has done.

An extract will show in what manner Mr Smith conceives and executes the singular character of Lord Rochester. Jocelyn had been persuaded to help him steal an heiress, whom my lord wished to marry; accordingly the fair one is secured, but at the appointed place of rendezvous, there was no Lord Rochester.

He hastened back, repeatedly calling out the name of his missing friend, but without effect. After proceeding about a mile in this manner, he came to a public house, and observing that some of the inmates were stirring, inquired whether any traveller had lately stopped there. A horseman had alighted, he was told, some little time before, who called for spiced Canary, of which he drank three half-tankards in quick succession, and had then quitted the house, and struck across the fields opposite. In the stable Jocelyn immediately recognised the horse upon which his lordship had been mounted, and instantly set off in pursuit of the rider, a good deal puzzled to account for this sudden change of purpose, and not altogether without apprehension as to the motives which had induced a man, always reckless and desperate, and now flushed with wine, to plunge into these lonesome meadows, in which he noticed several pools of water. Although the sun had now risen, he could not see a single moving object, but his ears served him better than his eyes, and his forebodings were quickly dissipated by hearing his lordship's hearty and peculiar laugh, which upon the present occasion was almost aggravated to a shriek.

Crossing a stile in the direction of the sound, he beheld a fold of sheep, with two men leaning upon the wattles, one of whom was his lordship. The other was a mountebank quack-doctor, who having got drunk over night at a neighbouring fair, had strayed to the sheep-fold, and imagining himself, as he leant upon the hurdles, to be in front of his own itinerant tumbrel, was haranguing his woollen auditors upon the merit of his medicines, with a most stolid and grave absurdity. The vacant look of the sheep, who had formed a semicircle at a little distance, and were gazing in his face, the fixed drunken eye of the orator, staring at the sun as if puzzled by the phenomenon, and his tottering efforts to recover the centre of gravity whenever he bowed to his fancied customers, were rendered still more ludicrous by the solemn folly of his address. To a dark-faced sheep, whom he individualized as a gentleman of an atrabilarious temperament, he most urgently recommended the precious elixir of the phial which he held, and so saying, he dropped his tobacco-box at his feet; upon a ram

with large curling horns, whom he apostrophized as the worthy magistrate in the periwig, he enforced the necessity of taking a box of his incomparable pills, and accordingly tossed him a bunch of keys; while a lamb, addressed as the sickly-looking young lady in white, was intreated with a maudlin tenderness to take some of his precious powders, of which he tendered her one in the form of a clasp-knife. His ridiculous perversion of long-winded medical terms, his frequent hiccoughs and hesitations as he stopped to stare with a stupid bewilderment at the sun, his exclaiming when any of the sheep bleated, "I will answer that objection presently," and the asinine anger with which he occasionally turned to Lord Rochester, and damned him for a lazy tapster in not bringing him another tankard of humming bub, had occasioned those shrieks of laughter which had attracted Jocelyn to the spot, and had afforded a treat to his lordship that he declared he would not have missed for all the heiresses in the three kingdoms.

"May I inquire," said Jocelyn, somewhat offended at this declaration, "how you discovered this egregious drunkard, and why you abandoned your party?"

"As to this inimitable artist," replied his lordship, "I stumbled upon him by mere chance; and as to my quitting the cavalcade, the Canary had partly driven it out of my head; and when it recurred, there appeared something so diverting in the dilemma of your all finding, when your horses were knocked up, that you had run away with a large live heiress, and didn't know what to do with her, that I could not resist the temptation of exposing you to it. I should have come forward, however, sooner or later, to relieve you from your embarrassment."

"Your lordship's friends are infinitely obliged to you," said Jocelyn coldly, 'and I would fain know why I was selected for the honour of being thus deceived and laughed at."

"Why, to deal frankly with you, Mr Vice, I have strongly conceited that you will become a great favourite with the King; if I fail in this enterprise I shall need your influence with him, for I shall probably fall into immediate disgrace. Nobody but myself can know that you have been a participator in this outrage, and thus I have you in my power; being enabled to effect *your* disgrace by disclosure, or by my silence to ensure your offices in averting my own. These are the morals at court, where all practise what I alone avow, because I had rather be a rogue than a hypocrite. And so having shown you what an amiable aspect is worn by the human heart when it throws off the mask; hey! to horse! Mr Vice, and let us gallop after the heiress."

Summary of the Practical Principles of Political Economy; with Observations on Smith's Wealth of Nations and Say's Political Economy. By a Friend of Domestic Industry. Cambridge. 1826. 8vo. pp. 88.

THE first part of this volume, containing what is now called a "Summary," &c. appeared originally in the form of essays in our department of "Miscellany." It would be hardly proper for us, therefore, to go into a review of it; but, as we must in the course of this article, attempt to refute some of the fundamental principles assumed by our correspondent, it seems necessary to state to our readers, that we do not, from the arrangement of our work, consider ourselves in any manner responsible for, or pledged to support, what is advanced in that department. And we shall cheerfully admit into the same department any argument either from our able correspondent or from any one else, in defence of the principles which we now impugn. After a remark or two on the form in which the author has again chosen to offer his views to the public, we shall pass to the consideration of his "Observations" upon Smith and Say, and refer to his "Principles" contained in the "Summary," only as they are made the grounds of strictures upon these eminent writers.

The difficulty, which common readers will find in going over this Summary, is, that it is composed mainly of abstract general propositions, and many of these are expressed, too, with great sententiousness and brevity. The writer evidently presumes us to be much better acquainted with the science of political economy than we really are. We have little proof, little argument, little illustration. On some of the interesting topics, we are left to look up for ourselves the material facts, and make our way through them to his conclusions, as we can. It appears to us, therefore, that he has not given a very "*plain* exposition of economical principles adapted to our interest," &c. How much soever the treatise may delight the highest class of his readers,—and we do not undertake to give any opinion on this point,—it will never do, we think, for common use, nor for extensive popular instruction. Many of the leading principles in it must require the labour of hard study for the young politician's mind thoroughly to comprehend, and not all of them are either to be accepted or rejected, even by the experienced scholar, without some investigation and thought.

We have a general objection to the use of summaries of any kind, for the purposes of instruction. They are chiefly useful to

those who make them; those, who are familiar with the science, do not want them; those who are not, will never find them profitable or easy sources of knowledge. In the admirable science of political economy particularly; the science which lies at the foundation of all just laws, and all true national greatness; and which, in this country more than in any other, is not to be confined to the enlightened few, who call themselves philosophers, but should be brought home familiarly to the mind of every intelligent man in the community; the science where, nevertheless, the great mass of the community, into whose hands this book is designed to fall, are not conscious of any deep immediate interest in the subject thus presented to them, we believe this mode of treating or teaching it to be extremely inefficient and objectionable. A summary is only an abstract of the reasonings and the opinions of the learned, and the difficulty with it is, that it cannot be made sufficiently interesting to the student. Mere general inferences never will awaken his curiosity. He is in this manner called upon to start from the wrong point in every one of his inquiries. The conclusions come foremost, and commonly indeed alone. The first step which he takes towards the solution of any particular question, brings him to the termination of it; and he will find little if any thing to lure him onward in the paths of discovery, or enliven him in the pursuit. This is in some measure the difficulty with our author's "Summary." If he had confined himself to some particular departments of the science; if he had gone into a full exposition and proof of those principles, which assume to be novel and important, and which are at variance with the most favourably received opinions now abroad upon the subject,—some such there are in the book he has given us,—he would have employed his active mind more effectually, and, we think, more usefully too. His truths would have been more impressive; his errors, more sure of being corrected by others, or probably by himself.

The "Observations on Smith's Wealth of Nations and Say's Political Economy," now published for the first time, are made upon the principles, which the author had previously laid down in his "Summary." We shall be free in our remarks upon these, because they contain unqualified strictures upon two of the most popular, and, as we still think, the most able writers, who have appeared, on this highly important science. This, our author allows, is generally their character, both in our own country and in Great Britain; he might have added, too, in France and Germany, and all over the enlightened world; and, as far as we

have studied his "Observations," we believe he has not shown them to be unworthy of this character in its very fullest extent.

But, in the first place, whatever we may say of their justness or accuracy, we have no hesitation in advising every student to have these "Observations" by him, when he is engaged with Smith and Say. Right or wrong, true or false, trifling or important in their estimates and conclusions, he may expect one good effect from them at least. They will interest him in the subject. They will enlist him on one side or the other of the controversy. They will thus appeal to him powerfully for thought, examination, and intellectual effort. And this, after all, is the material thing. In great political affairs particularly, he is not to rest his faith on so loose and shifting a basis as other men's opinions, how much soever he may respect and admire them. The materials for reasoning are all within his own reach. He is to be taught to take them apart, and put them together at pleasure, and draw conclusions from them for himself. And the "Observations" before us, read in company with Smith and Say, we believe to be well calculated for this kind of instruction. For they are evidently the offspring of a polished mind, conscious of its own powers,—too much so, perhaps,—bold, sometimes we think to rashness, and independent also to a fault. All these qualities, even though excessive, are sure to awaken a keen interest for inquiry in the student's bosom;—an interest, too, which will not be likely to betray him into easy acquiescence, because he knows that they are often the fruitful source of miscalculation and error.

Moreover, the student, if we mistake not, will be very much taken with the terseness of the style in which these "Observations" are presented to him. There is here no labour for the press. The thoughts are in no single instance wrought out into a dissertation, or a detailed review, in order to show how much the writer could make of them. They appear to be the direct, intelligent remarks of a man of talents, who has read over the hard studied works of Smith and Say, rather hastily, we should think; looked at some positions taken in them, not merely with boldness, but with a resolution to overthrow them, if possible; set down his thoughts as they occurred to him at once, and in all their native clearness; and then given them to the public as they were, without elaborating them at all, and we are inclined to think too, without putting himself to the trouble to re-examine them. Here also is another fruitful source of error. But a charm is thus thrown over the style; it is remarkable for pre-

cision, spirit, and force; there is a fire and an activity about it, which the nice calculations of prudence would cool, and the hard work of revision be pretty sure to make comparatively dull. We must, however, lay aside praises. Those which we have bestowed, indeed, are not to be taken entirely without limit or exception, though they are generally well deserved.

These "Observations" are all of one character. They are strictures of the severest and most unqualified nature. Those upon the Wealth of Nations are divided into twenty-seven sections, and those upon the Treatise on Political Economy, into thirty-eight; but by far the greater part of these may be subdivided each into many others, so that the errors of these popular writers become, according to our author, almost innumerable; and this, too, without one single merit, and without a bright redeeming quality of any kind, if we are to judge them by the general tone of his review. We will examine a few of the observations on Smith, in the order in which they stand.

The first is, that "He makes no distinction between wealth and value; he does not seem to be aware that the wealth of a country might be diminished, while the sum total of its exchangeable values remained undiminished." And with all the new light before us, we also are not aware that such a thing is possible. Our author dwells upon the above distinction three or four times in the course of his volume, and seems to treat it as a valuable discovery. Let us try it, and see what it is worth. Is there, then, any such distinction between wealth and value? Is the distinction an important one to the political economist? Has our author traced out the true distinction either in his "Summary" or his "Observations?"

"Wealth," he says, "is positive, value is relative." And we think that wealth, too, is relative as well as value. It relates to all the enjoyments, and conveniences, and necessaries of life, which it can give or command, or which lie within its reach. Strip it of this relative power, and it ceases to be wealth. The objects may indeed remain. Their utility may also in some sort remain. But the word wealth, can in no proper sense be applied to them.

Again; "Wealth, as distinguished from value, consists in the positive quantities of material objects of necessity or desire, which have exchangeable value, or which possess utility conferred by labour, without exchangeable value." So that a man must have some "positive quantity of material objects," &c. in order to be wealthy. What will our author say, then, of those unfortunate

people, who have made loans on good security or undoubted credit, or who have sunk all their money in the national funds? They have none of the "positive quantities" of which he speaks. How then shall we class them? As people not of wealth, but of exchangeable values? This reasoning will never do. We speak of positive value with the same propriety that we speak of positive wealth, and this last word has a meaning too well settled to be limited, as in this comparison it is, to "quantities of material objects of necessity or desire," &c. We would ask our author, too, before we leave this quotation, what are those "material objects" of which he speaks, "which possess utility, conferred by labour, without exchangeable value?"

If the quantities of all objects having exchangeable value be diminished in equal proportions, wealth, so far as it consists in these objects, would be diminished thereby in the average proportion; but the exchangeable value of each object would remain the same and undiminished; *for each object would still command the same quantity of every other object, that it did before the proportionate diminution.*

But how is this possible? There is not so much to command; there is not so much to be commanded. The "*same* quantities" of every article are nowhere in the market. The combined accumulated capitals of all the purchasers, and all the sellers can nowhere find nor produce them, as in the preceding times of plenty. "The value of any particular article," our author says, "is estimated by the *quantities* of other articles at large which it will purchase." In the case supposed, no article will purchase so much,—no article will sell for so much, as it previously would. How, then, can its value remain the same? Does the writer see how far his arguments will carry him? Suppose an indefinite proportional diminution of every article in the market, till they are all on the point of disappearing; has he still confidence to tell us, that "the sum total of their exchangeable values will remain undiminished," and that each one of these minute, evanescent articles will purchase the "same quantity of other articles at large," that the full portion would in times of the greatest plenty?

Once more;

The distinction between wealth and value will appear in the following case. Suppose, for instance, that the harvest of a country were to fall short so far as to double the value of grain. This would reduce the value of every other commodity in relation to grain one half. Here the relative values of commodities would be changed, *but the sum total of their values would not be diminished.*

Here, too, there is a gratuitous assumption, without proof, without illustration, without any farther light thrown upon the subject, than what is contained in the above half a dozen lines. You may be a little puzzled, reader, in finding out what the author means by this statement. Do you think he means that all the commodities gathered together, after the harvest's failure, and sent abroad, will command as much in the foreign markets as they would in the preceding year of plenty? And the expression, "sum total of their values," might perhaps lead you to this inference. No such thing as this, however. He refers you merely to their exchangeable values, in relation to one another; and, in order to put his principle to the test, he must resort to an extreme case. Let him have that extreme case, then. Suppose a country, if it be possible to suppose one, absolutely shut out from all foreign commerce, and forced, either by its peculiar situation or by strange political enactments, to depend on its own products and resources for its advancement, and even for its subsistence. Suppose the half crop of grain to occur here. Suppose, moreover, this half crop to command the same quantity of every other commodity, that the full harvest would have done, and consequently that its exchangeable value remains undiminished. Suppose, lastly, that the exchangeable value of all other articles in market, with reference to, and in exchange with, each other, should be the same as before the year of scarcity; still there is a most material deficiency yet to be supplied. The exchangeable value of every other commodity, with reference to grain, is immensely lessened. No one will, by the supposition, command more than half its usual quantity. And we ask our author, how this loss is to be supplied? Where can he point to us a corresponding increase of exchangeable values, which will balance this loss, or even materially alleviate it?

We think this is the fact, which led our "Friend of Domestic Industry" astray. When an article of prime necessity becomes scarce, its scarcity raises its price, and the exchangeable value of this small quantity is perhaps as great as was the exchangeable value of the full stock in times of the greatest abundance. But then there is a diminution in the exchangeable values of all other articles, with reference to the scarce one, and this diminution, we say, is just the loss which the wealth of the community has sustained.

What, then, is the distinction which we can make between wealth and value? Wealth is the general term; value is the

quality which constitutes it. We class together an innumerable multitude of objects which may be entirely dissimilar in every other respect, except that they have each more or less the single property, which we call exchangeable value; and to this class of objects we give the title, *wealth*. Exchangeable value is the only feature of resemblance among them; it is the only thing they have in common; it is the only basis of the classification. Take away this, and you may not destroy the objects, perhaps, nor their utility always, but there is no such thing as wealth remaining. We appeal to our readers, whether this be not the true distinction, and whether it can be a very material one for the purposes of the political economist?

Now turn to our author's definition of wealth, and we find him, when he has no refined theory to support, unconsciously pointing to this same distinction.

Individual wealth is that, whatever it may consist in, which gives the possessor of it, in all places within the sphere of civilization, and at all times, in sickness as well as in health, a command over all objects, whether of necessity or desire, which are of an exchangeable nature.

And wealth is just in proportion to this power of command, which means, after all, nothing more than exchangeable value.

But we must leave this point. We should not have dwelt upon it so long, only that the author has devoted a whole section to the support of it in his "Summary," and has made this the basis of two separate attacks upon Smith and Say, in the "Observations" before us. We pass on to the next.

With respect to the increase of wealth, Smith considers what is saved from annual income and added to capital as the only source of it. (*B.* II. *ch.* 3.) He entirely overlooks the increasing value of all real property, which arises from the progress of industry and the increase of population, and which takes place in every country where industry is encouraged and protected.

It is worth while to remark here, that Smith is now speaking merely of the accumulation of capital. The title of this Book is, "Of the Nature, Accumulation, and Employment of Stock," and of this particular Chapter, "Of the Accumulation of Capital, or of Unproductive Labour." Land he has not here under consideration. Further on, in his next book, he seems not at all insensible of the important fact, which is brought against him, but which our author has, after all, strangely failed in tracing to the right cause. We will show this very briefly.

What raises the value of land in any particular place? The increase and press of population around it. And what leads to this? The growing demand for labour, and the call of industry for employment. And where will you find the only efficient spring to these great principles of action? In the accumulation of capital. The holder of this draws towards it all the active and the industrious. He alone has business for them. They gather together, and settle around the place of the investment, or the circulation of his property, in crowds, for food, for occupation, for advancing their own condition in society; and this raises the value of lands in the place at once. The accumulation of capital lies at the basis of the whole fabric. And whence comes this accumulation of capital? From the saving, which Smith points to, in the chapter under our author's condemnation. How far, then, is it from the truth, that "what is saved from annual income, and added to capital, is the *only* source of wealth?"

The increased value of richly cultivated lands, too, is only another effect of the accumulation of capital. There is capital fixed and vested in the lands thus richly cultivated.

The next objection to Smith's Inquiry is, that "in treating of value, he says it is of two kinds, value in use and value in exchange; a distinction which only serves to produce confused notions on the nature of value," &c. And we will show our author by and by, that he has himself been betrayed into confused notions on the nature of value, by not attending to this distinction.

The meaning of the word *value* is very different in political economy, and in common use. In common use, it is loosely given to innumerable objects of necessity or convenience, which, however, have nothing exchangeable in their nature. But in political economy, the power in exchange is its sole meaning. The object of Smith was to point this out, to define the term more clearly, to settle the use which he should make of it himself. And for these purposes he has employed a dozen lines,—no, not a dozen lines,—in the edition before us, to clear up the distinction above referred to.

Even though wrong, how could our author make this the ground of formal animadversion? Read his preliminary.

In the following remarks, the writer's aim has been briefly to expose the fallacy, not of every thing in the Inquiry, which is open to exception; but chiefly of doctrines, which it is conceived are of a tendency *injurious to the welfare of our country*.

The next doctrine, injurious to the welfare of our country, in Smith's Inquiry, is, that "'Labour,' he says, 'is the real measure of exchangeable value.'" This is an old objection, and long ago, received the following very satisfactory comment.. "Doctor Smith does not, on any occasion, give either wages or the price of grain, or any other, as a precise measure for value; he seems, at all times, perfectly aware, that the objects of his inquiry are not susceptible of mathematical accuracy, and therefore he endeavours by a vast number of comparisons, by a variety of examples given, and applications made, of his principles, to bring to a nearness that, which never can be brought to an absolute certainty." *Playfair's Remarks on Lauderdale.*

The words of Smith are, "The value of any commodity to the person who possesses it, and who means not to use or consume it himself, but to exchange it for other commodities, is equal to the quantity of labour, which it enables him to *purchase* or *command*." This contains his whole leading principle upon the subject. How does our author encounter it? "We do not value a thing by the labour which it may have cost to produce it; [and who ever pretended that we did?] nor by the labour, which it will command. A commodity may have cost one man twice the labour to produce it, which it would have cost another; and it may have cost in one place ten times the labour which it would cost in another. On the other hand, a commodity may not command half as much labour as was expended upon it, or it may command ten times as much, according to the circumstances of the case." The only shadow of an argument, which we can find here, against Smith's idea, is in this last sentence. And, we must repeat it, it is the mere shadow of an argument. Examine it. We do not value a thing by the labour which it will command. Why? Because it may not command the same portion of labour that it cost! Our author evidently assumes here, as a test principle, the labour cost, which, however, he had just rejected, and which no writer, to our knowledge, ever presumed to offer as any just constant criterion of value. The labour cost, indeed, of those articles of exchange, where industry and capital may always make the supply meet the full demand, will never be long far from the real value of them; and for this simple reason,—that if they do not command in the market sufficient to pay for the labour which brought them there, they will gradually disappear, till their scarcity shall have raised their price; if they command more than sufficient, competitors will rush in, till the supply shall have brought the price down to the fair value of the article. But

Smith's measure of the exchangeable value of an article, is the labour it will *command*, no matter whether it cost half, or ten times as much, according to the supposition here made. If our author really understood this, he has no where approached towards an answer to it.

But what it the real measure which it is proposed to substitute for the very false one of Smith? "We value a commodity by the *desire* or *want* we have for it, and not by the labour which it cost or will command." And does our author seriously believe these will answer the purpose of estimating what he means by value? Is it possible that he can imagine for a moment, that the eternally various and varying and indefinite inclinations of different individuals will constitute it? Observe, again, his explanation of the term value. "In the use of a thing, there is utility, but not value; value arises only in exchange, and it is only by exchange that the value of things can be estimated." An idea, which he repeats more than once. There is no value, then, where there is nothing exchangeable, whatever may be our desires and wants. Now these are often the strongest for objects which have no possible quality of exchange in their nature. So that, by one of his rules, value will be at the very highest; by another, it will be at the same time absolutely nothing! We should have believed that this mistake about the real measure of exchangeable value might have crept into the book before us, through some slight inadvertence on the part of the writer, in the ardour of composition, or in his haste for the press, did we not find it deliberately laid down again; and made a portion of the argument also in another attack upon Smith. "The market price of a commodity is the only natural price there is; and this naturally arises from our wants; and it is our *wants* alone, which can give to a commodity a price or value."

We will now make good to the author our promise. We believe he was led into these confused notions on the nature of value, by not giving heed to Smith's distinction, beforementioned, between value in exchange and value in use. The value in *use* of an object we may sometimes, perhaps, measure by our desires and wants. The thirsty wants water, the prisoner in his dungeon desires air and light; and we see not the impropriety of saying, that there is value in these things, although not of an exchangeable nature, and that those know best how to estimate it, who are deprived of them, simply because their wants and desires are the strongest. Not so in any respect with the estimate of the value of commodities in exchange. Their plenty may make them

cheap, when our demand for them is the greatest; their scarcity may make them dear, though comparatively few want or desire, or have even the slightest inclination to possess them.

It is no satisfactory solution of this difficulty, about fixing the the true measure of the exchangeable value of an article in the market, to say, that it must be estimated by the quantity of other articles at large, which it will purchase or command; because the question still recurs, How is the value of these other articles to be estimated? And so the inquiry goes on interminably. The object now is to ascertain what, in different times and places, is the best *ultimate* measure of value? What is the single standard, to which the great mass of marketable commodities, the works of industry, the products of stock, the fruits of agriculture, may always, and every where be most properly brought, and each separately put to the test? And we have no hesitation in saying, that Smith has here pointed us to the true one. The labour it will command, seems to have been the first, the original measure of value. The labour cost also then qualified it. The savage, who had given a day to the manufactnre and trimming of his bow, would naturally require the day's work of another, or an article which required the labour of a day from another, in exchange for it. Labour, in the liberal sense of the term, although, as has been said, not very precise or definite, is still the best single ultimate standard, to which we can appeal, and more unchanging certainly through long periods of duration, than any other we can name. But we refer our readers to the admirable chapter of Smith for a full discussion of this subject.

We have taken up these "Observations" thus far in the order in which they stand, that we might not be accused of selecting particularly faulty ones, for the purpose of censure; and we have given those we have taken, comparatively unimportant as they may seem by the side of others, a very patient, careful, and, as many of our readers no doubt will say, tedious examination, in order to try their general character, and to show how little they ought to lower the elevated reputation of the writer, on whom they fall. We cannot go through them in course, and bring the leech to every one which we think unsound. We have, indeed, run our eye over the remainder, and found errors, which surprised us more than those we have mentioned; some of which, too, are of the utmost importance, not merely to the student, in his investigations, but to the statesman in his practice. It is not necessary for us, however, to explain them, even if it were in our power. The great questions of commercial policy,

of restraints on trade, of encouragements given to particular investments of capital, of high import duties, for the purpose of protecting and employing domestic industry, &c., the most interesting questions to the admirer of the science, we are absolutely shut out by our limits from discussing, so extensive is the inquiry into which they would inevitably lead us. Besides this, we could never hope to add any thing to the elaborate, and, as we think, conclusive arguments, which are already before the public on these favourite topics.

In the science of morals, there is a selfish system which is theoretical merely. In the science of government, also, there is a selfish system, but it is practical merely, and all theory and all good sense as well as generous feeling, look against it, though it is still enforced by some statesmen, who know not how to defend it by argument. Our author is too much of an advocate for this system, which we thought was entirely out of date with all late enlightened writers on the subject. We are ourselves for the utmost freedom of the commercial exchange of capital and commodities all over the world. We think, that if this could be effected thoroughly, it would be for the interest not only of some, and the greater part, but of each and every one of the nations so engaged. We believe that all would thus go on towards national opulence and aggrandizement, incomparably faster than by any modification of the old, narrow, unsocial, selfish policy, which was long allowed to cramp their energies entirely, and from which few, if any, are yet properly free. We argue also for the greatest freedom, within the limits of justice, of all the individuals of the same nation. Let not the legislator be at any trouble to calculate for them, and tell them how they had better trade,—where they can most profitably invest their capital, and employ their time. They will find this out most easily themselves; and, besides this, that employment of industry and that investment of capital which will be most lucrative to the honest owner, will be most lucrative likewise to the great mass of the community to which he belongs. Thus it is, that the interests of nations with each other, and of individuals with each other, are perfectly harmonious and indeed inseparable. The fair gain of one is a fair gain to the mass; it is something, as it were, created. There is a provision in the benevolent arrangement of Providence, by which almost every man, who works honestly and effectually for the advancement of his own condition in society, is helping others onward also in the same career, though unconsciously, and without intending it himself. His

natural inclinations, controled by the rules of justice, guide him to the great purpose. These are some of the principles on which the system of Smith rests. Who does not love to believe them? What friend to humanity does not desire most ardently that they may be true? And, indeed, the practice of enlightened statesmen, as well as the arguments of political economists, do prove them to be as sound in fact as they are grand in contemplation.

But our author's faults do not lie merely in erroneous reasonings. He is guilty likewise of some very unfair misstatements of the views of Smith, or else we are incapable of understanding them. We will give our readers a single instance of this.

Smith does not seem to entertain very correct notions of what the general interest of society consists in, when he says that the interests of those who live by the profits of productive industry, namely, the tenant, the mechanic, the manufacturer, the merchant,—in short all, who use their intelligence, skill, and capital in the employment and support of labour, 'have not the same connexion with the general interest of society,' as the interests of those have, who live by *rent* and wages. *How they, who live by rent, should contribute more to the public interest than they, who live by the profits of productive industry, is a thing which he does not condescend to explain.* (*B.* I. *ch.* 10, *Conclusion.*)

How our author could make this assertion, we are utterly at a loss to imagine. Smith does explain every proposition, which he here lays down. He does employ the whole of the Conclusion chapter, in showing how "those who live by profit have not the same connexion with the general interests of society, as those who live by rent and wages." And this is all he proposes to do. It is his sole and entire purpose. No other topic is before him. He nowhere speaks of "all who use their intelligence, skill, and capital in the employment and support of labour," as is here charged against him. This is an inference of his critic. But his reasonings upon every one of the statements, which he does here make, seem to us perfectly full and conclusive. We beg our readers to turn for a moment to this strangely misunderstood chapter. It is not an easy thing to abridge it, and we shall add but a single reflection of our own, in support of the positions, which we say its sole object is to explain.

The merchant's property, and the stock capitalist's property generally, is in the main personal property. It is not to be confined any where. If it be not profitable in one place, he may make it so in another. He can sever the ties which bind him to any particular place, and transfer himself, and the wealth

which he has accumulated, into any other quarter of the globe where interest, or enterprise, or a spirit of speculation invites him. Not so with the landholder or dependent on rent. We know he may not be actuated by any more disinterested motives than the merchant or the capitalist; but the fact is, his interest is inseparably connected with that of the country, where his territory lies, so far as this goes at least; and his well directed efforts to raise the value of his land must contribute immediately to the advancement likewise of his country's interest. There is probably no so good proof of the thrift and the growing prosperity of any particular place, as the increasing demand for land, and the high price of rent. On the other hand, the merchant's and the capitalist's interest may often draw them directly the other way. Apart from patriotism and benevolent feeling, of which, perhaps, they may have more than any other class in the community, but which are, nevertheless, not the only springs of action with them, they would be willing to see some of the manufactories, some of the products of domestic industry curtailed around them, in order that they might send their ships abroad, and supply our wants from the storehouses of other nations; and thus devote their time and their capital to the employment and support of foreign labour; a thing, which our author in other parts of his work seems most to shrink from and deprecate. It is, indeed, according to him, a ruinous policy, and makes a direct loss to the country which submits to it. This forms also the groundwork of one of his heaviest charges against the whole system of Smith.

For ourselves, we have no such apprehensions about the employment of foreign industry, nor about the attempts of merchants and capitalists to limit the competition and widen the market, if they can only be kept within the bounds of honest, open dealing. But as we have stated thus incidentally another charge of our author against Smith, it is but fair that we shouldextract, likewise, the reasoning in support of it, and see what that is worth.

Adam Smith's general doctrine with respect to national industry is this: That it would be better for a nation to use its capital in the employment and support of the cheap labour of foreign countries, than to use it in the employment and support of dearer labour at home; or in other words, that the nation ought to leave those, who possess the capital, to employ foreign labour with it, rather than, by appropriate regulations, afford inducements to them to employ home labour with it in preference. (*B.* IV.)

He does not consider that whatever this cheaper foreign labour may cost, it is, to the amount of such cost, so much lost to the

nation. This employment of foreign labour puts out of employment or precludes from employment an equal quantity of domestic labour, which, had it not been thus displaced or precluded from employment, would have saved to the nation not only the whole amount of what the cheaper labour has cost, but also the expense of supporting the domestic labourers. For the nation must support its own labourers, whether it employs them or not.

This reasoning, if it were to prevail, would put up a factory of almost every kind, in almost every town in the country. They have most of them industry enough, if well directed and put under proper municipal restrictions and regulations, to make for themselves all the necessary articles of life. Why, then, should out-of-town labour be called for and supported? Why should they live in this miserable state of absolute dependence upon other places, when they have the means of self-supply within their own limits? No matter how much cheaper the commodities may be procured elsewhere, the cost of it is, nevertheless, so much dead loss to the town. So much capital is thus removed from it; so much foreign industry thus receives that emolument, which might be invested for the benefit of those, whom the town is bound by every generous feeling as well by every principle of law and justice, to employ and support. Indeed, if this reasoning be pushed home, it must bring men back to the original savage state of individual independence, and destroy entirely the division of labour, of which commerce is only one of the higher branches.

The errors assumed in the above argument of our author are, that our industry is ill employed at home, and that capital goes abroad for the benefit solely of the foreign artisan. Whereas our industry is in fact most profitably at work; when it can do that which will command more, both the capitalist and the labourer will be glad to avail themselves of the chance, for there is profit then to be shared between them. And our capital does not continue to go abroad without receiving in advance, or bringing in return, a still greater amount of foreign capital for our use solely. We let our capital go for the support and employment of foreign labour! Why may not foreign nations accuse themselves also of the same folly? They send us their capital. They have sent us, indeed, a greater amount of it than they have received of ours, for our commerce with them has added immensely to our national and individual wealth. By this reasoning, they are thus growing poor for our benefit alone. They give support also to the poorest of our labourers. They furnish them not only with occupation, but with clothing and innumerable articles of comfort

and convenience, which have become now almost necessaries of life. Moreover, they are still so dependent on us, they expect from us so many materials, and so large a market for their commodities in exchange, that there is no danger of their cutting the tie which binds them to us, and telling us, we must for the time to come rely on our own resources alone. On which side then lies the obligation? But we did not intend to dwell upon such errors as this is. It makes part of that old, selfish system, of which we have heretofore spoken, and which is as ruinous to the nations that adopt it, as it is to those against whom it is aimed. We wish the advocates of this system would point us to one single able argument in defence of it. We have never yet seen any.

But we have gone far enough. The sources of all the errors in the work before us, which is evidently written by a man of taste and talent, seem to be a want of respect for the opinions of others, and a want of care and patience likewise in the examination of them. Some one tells us, that genius is a great foe to philosophy. The reason assigned is, we believe, that it is impatient of control, and unwilling to labour; it seizes a position boldly,—cannot stay to examine it,—drops it, and rushes on to new discoveries. We shall be glad to give the writer shelter under this flattering excuse, if our readers think he deserves it. But another trait, which we commonly find in the character of genius, is love and admiration of kindred genius; and of this, he has shown us no sort of proof. If he should accuse us likewise of being unduly severe, we might say to him, *Decipit exemplar imitabile vitiis.* He has set us the full example. If we have followed him, it is at an immeasurable distance. We have remarked already the unqualified nature of these "Observations." Not even a compliment escapes the writer of them; not a passing tribute of praise or commendation of any kind is wrung from him. He is the only one of the many unsparing critics upon Smith particularly, who seems to treat him as if he were totally destitute of merit. Nor is this all. There is sometimes a sneer, and a tone of sarcasm running through his strictures, which we hardly know how to pardon. A single instance of this;

Mr Say says, that "A full grown man is an accumulated capital." (II. 75, *note.*)

The prodigal, if full grown, is then an accumulated capital. Mr Say considers capital one of the sources of production. Prodigality must, then, according to him, be capital productively em-

ployed. Capital he also calls an agent of production. In that case, the prodigality of a full grown man must be the productive agency of capital!

This forms one whole "Observation" on Say's Treatise. Now, reader, is it not a little too much in the old Dennis style of critique? What is worse, too, is it not utterly destitute of merit as an argument, if indeed it could be ever designed as such? Say's idea is, that the expense of feeding, and clothing, and educating a man is in the nature of vested capital. But where does he tell us of capital of any kind, which must always be productive? It is in fact, often wasted and misspent, and made the instrument of ruin in every way, and such, we say, is the fate of the talents and the acquirements of the prodigal. If it be the metaphor in which the idea is expressed, that our author thinks "injurious to the welfare of our country," he is off the field of political economy, where alone we proposed to meet him. Perhaps he may be rhetorically right. We have no Blair by us to try the question.

Still we bate nothing from the recommendations of these severe strictures, with which we set out. They will interest and engage the student. Moreover, unless we are greatly mistaken, he will rise from the perusal of them with a much higher respect for the merits of Smith and Say, than if he had read these distinguished authors alone. It must, indeed, require a good deal of power to stand uninjured against such determined, and, in some cases, such well managed attacks, as they are here called upon to sustain. But it is only into the hands of those, who are actually engaged with Smith and Say, that we could wish these "Observations" to fall. One reason is, that they do not always fairly represent the views of these writers. Another is, that they partake a little too much of the character of the author's "Summary;" some of them are very compendious and general, and cannot be easily understood alone. If he had confined them to a few important questions started in political economy; if he had enlarged fully on these questions; if he had pointed out to us what particular profitable branch of commerce, or manufacture, or agricultural interest, or domestic industry of any kind, has been, or may be paralyzed by the great leading principles of Smith and Say, supposing them to be in full, efficient force, as it seems they threaten soon to be; if, passing by the many little errors he thinks he has discovered, he had taken up two or three of the inquiries, which we have here pointed to, or similar ones, and gone fully into them, and given us a well wrought

argument in support of his own thoughts on the subject, he would then have employed his discriminating mind to some valuable purpose. This book would have been useful by itself and alone. He might thus also have sometimes convinced us, that he was right, or what seems much more probable to us of course, he might have convinced himself that he was wrong.

One word more upon this subject, and we have done. The writer tells us, that the governors of Harvard College "deserve much commendation for causing instruction to be given in a science so important to be generally understood, and hitherto so little studied, as the nature and causes of national wealth." And yet "it is to be regretted, that a treatise so exceptionable in its principles and arrangement as Mr Say's, should be put into the hands of students, whom it would be better to leave uninstructed than to fill their minds with pernicious errors." And again he speaks of it, as "a book confused in its arrangemant, mistaken in fundamental doctrines, and teaching opinions prejudicial to the welfare of our country." Now here lies our difficulty. Will the "Friend of Domestic Industry" have the goodness to give us his advice, and help us out of it? What substitute shall the enlightened governors of our University put into the hands of their pupils for the text-book now in use? No modification of the works of Smith or Say will answer, for they both are virtually the same; "the principles of Mr Say are essentially those of Adam Smith,"—and those principles are wrong, dangerous, pernicious. Where, then, are we to look for one? All those which we are acquainted with, of any talent or merit of any kind, are deeply imbued with the errors and prejudices of those most popular writers. What is to be done? Shall the scholars give up the pursuit for want of a safe guide to conduct them in it?

MISCELLANY.

THOUGHTS ON MILTON.

[We fear there is a little too much severity in some of the following strictures on the character of Milton. We give it a place in order that those who are not disposed to pay any great veneration to his memory, may have a fair hearing.]

A COMBINATION in the same individual of the different talents for successful composition in poetry and prose, may be claimed as a characteristic of our own times. It has been familiarized to us in so many instances among later English authors, especially in certain of our distinguished contemporaries, that we half forget it is of comparatively recent exhibition, and apparent in few instances before Dryden and Pope. These exemplified alike both styles of writing, and still retain in both an elevated rank; while among their immediate predecessors, the Essays of Cowley have long survived his Lyrics, and the Epic of Milton has been read by multitudes, who have suffered his "Treatises," "Tractates," and "Tenures," to rest undisturbed among "literary sods." From this decent burial, however, there has not been wanting inclination to disinter them; and once and again the spirit of party, civil and religious, has attempted their revival. According to the different creeds of the respective critics—as churchmen or dissenters, royalists or republicans—have these writings alternately been lauded or lampooned; but as neither friendship nor enmity, which sometimes accomplish the same end by opposite means, has ever succeeded in rendering them popular, we are warranted in suspecting an inherent disqualification. For the third time the experiment is renewed, in consequence of the newly discovered "Treatise on Christian Doctrine;" and the number of elaborate disquisitions it has occasioned, reminds us of a curiosity in the archives of the Massachusetts Antiquarian Society, consisting of half a score of manuscript books of commentary upon the single book of Revelation! All admit the Treatise of Milton to be of little moment, either to the memory of its author, or the edification of the community; yet as all unite, also, in making it the occasion of announcing their own sentiments on his life and opinions, the writer of this article, too, may follow the fashion of the day.

There is no paradox in asserting that the poetic genius of Milton, even had it been acknowledged at the first, as ever after, would have been considered rather a hindrance than a help to his pretensions as a political economist. The provinces of the two, indeed, seem no less asunder than the heavens and the earth; and St John, in the Isle of Patmos, fresh from the inspiration of that

Apocalypse to which we have referred, might as fitly have been summoned to regulate the dimensions of his native Judea, as the poet of Paradise Lost to direct the factions that divided England. For a guide, he was too abstracted to be useful, too erratic to be safe. Nor is the office of the Muse lessened, but magnified, by esteeming it all too pure and peaceful to encounter the stratagems and turbulence of party. The poet, like the priest, should never mingle with the conflicting hosts, but to temper the fury or heal the wounds of those who are engaged in the warfare. In fact, the sober decision of the public, to regard genius of any kind with a vigilant eye, appears justified by every consideration of its nature. The intellectual attribute to which this high appellation is assigned, and which, confident in its own resources, is originating and uncontrollable, is justly distrusted in political science, in favour of wisdom, that relies with more deference on experience and observation. Genius is proverbially restless; and men have felt that the balance on which their destinies were suspended, might not be poised by an unsteady hand. The prevalence of imagination, the aspiring after a *beau idéal*, however favourable to success in the fine arts, becomes pernicious in that, where the aim should be "not so much what is perfect, as what is practicable." If the bard destroyed his poem, or the sculptor his statue, in the hope of excelling it in some happier moment, it was his own creation, over which he exercised but an owner's right; and the world, at the worst, would lose only an elegant addition to its unessential ornaments. But the same fastidiousness employed upon government, endangers a machine, the work of other artists; which many hands have combined to form, and which the consent of many minds is requisite to alter. The reckless assailant, who, nevertheless, would risk its demolition, for the chance of remodelling its fragments with some fancied improvement, might whelm beneath the ruins the lives and liberties, not only of contemporary, but of coming generations. Yet sagacious statesmen have been found in men of genius; but only when this quality was accompanied with the amplest knowledge of human nature; a combination not frequently discoverable, and assuredly not in Milton. His men and women, or rather his man and woman, are like no other. His acquaintance was rather with books than with mankind; and among mankind, principally with literati like himself. Hence, too, his unfitness for the drama, to which he once aspired; but prudently relinquished, in time to avoid going beyond the titles of his contemplated plays. In that wide range of observation which takes the guage of universal character, from the prince to the peasant, from the philosopher to the fool, he was singularly deficient. His "Comus," the most admired of his attempts in this line, is dramatic chiefly in form; and the harangues of his

supernatural interlocutors in the Epic, have not much in common with mortal colloquy.

For the poem of "Paradise Lost," to have been contemned at its publication, at a period and among a people not unenlightened, must be ranked with the marvels of literary history. In recalling to its pages the truant attention of his country, the lettered Secretary of George I. enjoyed a triumph far more congenial with his character, than any of the honours of his official station; and evinced how the fine taste of a critic may prove to an author, what a fine light is to a painter; not creating, indeed, but developing those beautiful images, which might else have remained forever latent, and consequently lost. In the department of Sacred Epic, the work of Milton was alone, at least in English. That of Dante was known only through the dim medium of translation, or the scarcely less dim insight which any man can acquire into any language but his own. The Italians, we believe, claim for their countryman a precedence in merit as in time. In one particular, the claim must be allowed. From the era of Elizabeth, the Briton could find in the perfect phraseology of Bacon, every expression to be desired, either for use or ornament. The Florentine was the inventor not only of his story, but the language in which it was told; of the dream, and the interpretation thereof; and Italy received from him, together with a song, the *gift of a tongue.* Considering the remoteness and barbarism of that age, and his numerous vocations,—not as a political writer merely, but as a most efficient actor in all its public commotions,—a soldier, magistrate, ambassador; and if the impediments that intellect has to overcome, be taken into the account, when estimating its achievements, candour, perhaps, will assign the pre-eminence to the author of the *Divina Commedia.*

We confess ourselves in agreement with those who consider the emotions awakened by the character of Milton's Satan, as of injurious practical tendency. Let him who doubts this tendency, compare his own feelings after reading, for instance, the Sermon on the Mount, with an effort to enter into its spirit, and those experienced upon listening to the description or declamation of Satan, with a like surrender of soul to its influence. His hold on the mind is like that of the serpent which typified him, who fascinated to destroy. The heroes of the Iliad have incurred a similar exception, but with less reason. Achilles and Agamemnon, however mighty, were yet of mortal, and therefore variable nature; whose excesses might serve as beacons to men of like passions, and who were limited in their career of violence, by the scantiness of human intelligence, and the brevity of human life. But the Supernal Spirit of Evil, with power and duration equally indefinite, and both exerted solely to injure; without any good, or (in

the strong language of his delineator) with *evil become his good*, should never have excited aught but unmingled detestation. If this sentiment be objected to, as unhealthy to the heart, it is granted; and this is a reason why a devout man should not have selected a character which must, in justice, provoke no other. Let us not deceive ourselves by confounding the malignant with the magnanimous. In a matter of such moral import, let not the sonorous numbers of the poet, how sublime soever, beguile us of our judgment. The "unconquerable will," the "spirit never to submit or yield," is one of the worst features of the worst men. It is the spirit which makes our rabble at an execution look with contempt on the penitent, and with respect on the ruffian *who dies game*. It is the spirit most hostile to Christianity, and most the reverse of that embodied in its founder.

After what has been advanced by such authorities as Barrow and Addison, and Johnson and Warton, upon the merits of Milton's epic, its sublimity of plan and execution, its energy of thought, and harmony of versification, any thing additional were unnecessary, if not presumptuous. Its defects received less comment at the outset; since, while even the former remained disregarded, it had been impolitic and ill-timed to designate the latter. With the internal was combined, as we have seen, the adventitious distinction, of being without any object of comparison. And if such was the case then, how much more now! It has been said the age of epics has gone by. With the multiplication of claimants for notice in every department of literature, the notice to each must necessarily be circumscribed, unless human life could be lengthened in proportion. The subject of the poem, moreover, formerly procured for it audience with some who considered poetry in general but a profane pastime. The sterner Puritans, who eschewed the whole art and mystery of verse-making, yet allowed themselves to follow the flights of Milton, if not as a great, yet as a godly poet; and amid their New England descendants instances might be found, possibly within the recollection of most of us, where the "Paradise Lost," together with the "Night Thoughts," "Pilgrim's Progress," and sundry volumes of "Clarissa Harlowe's" interminable series, composed the whole authorized circle of English Belles-Lettres. But since men have felt an increasing repugnance at confounding the provinces of fancy and faith, the time for scriptural subjects has likewise passed away; and these are now as reverently avoided, as they once were reverently sought. The Paradise Lost is at present, we suspect, more admired than perused; and men content themselves with paying to its author, like the devotees of Thibet to their grand Lama, a distant and unseen adoration. We have known those of the highest abilities and reputation, who could not relish Milton. Something is re-

quired in our progenitors that has a bearing on ourselves, in situations and sentiments which have been or may be matter of personal experience. The primæval beings represented to us, have as little of all this, as their paradisaical dwelling had of resemblance to the "working-day-world" in which we live. They are out of our knowledge, and beyond our sympathy. Part of this may be the fault of the subject, and part of the poet. He did not make the most of his human materials, but reserved his strength for his supernatural agents. After rendering just tribute to the grandeur and loftiness of his Muse, there is a sense of deficiency in the tender and pathetic. There is not that mastery over the feelings which some other bards exert to a degree nearly overpowering. How much greater interest has Shakspeare inspired for his Ferdinand and Miranda, the beings who, in their mature simplicity and their desert island, most nearly resemble the first pair in their secluded Eden. The forfeiture of Paradise for a single transgression, one would think, an event sufficiently piteous; yet, who ever wept over the strain that records it? Still, our moral sense and Milton's design to the contrary notwithstanding, the offenders rather gain on us after their lapse. We had before marvelled how innocence could be rendered so little engaging. Our day-dreams of that state are disturbed. It repulses, instead of inviting our aspirations. We are awake, alas! forever; and painfully realize

The beautiful is vanished, and returns not.

There is a coarseness and roughness in Milton's portraiture of the affections, more striking when contrasted with the exquisite sketches recently exhibited in this poetical age; and if revolting at the present progress of refinement, likely to be less tolerated as that refinement advances. This was complained of, if we remember, not long since, by an ingenious and approved writer;* whose remarks, had we his volume at hand, we should willingly substitute for our own. And the origin of this defect lay deep in the man; even in those illiberal and ignoble views of the female character, which seem to have grown upon him in after life, —since his "Comus" afforded glimpses of something finer. Intellectual equality was an admission not to be expected for the sex; but to stop short of assigning them intellectual nothingness. He is scarcely a step in advance of a patriarch of the Pentateuch, or a modern Mahometan. Every where the first duty of woman is obedience, and submissiveness her chief grace;

God is thy law, thou mine: to know no more
Is woman's happiest knowledge and her praise.

Such is the conjugal confession of faith put into the mouth of Eve! of which precious creed, it is difficult to say, whether the

* Simonne.

imbecility or impiety demand most animadversion. The capabilities of the feminine nature—its contrasted, yet harmonious combinations—timid, yet trusting; sensitive, yet longsuffering; of melting tenderness and heroic resolution;—of all these, he desired to know nothing. The fault was not in his understanding, but his temper. None had ampler facilities toward forming a nobler theory, had he cherished the disposition to avail himself of them. We appeal not to the romances of chivalry,—which yet he knew; for we require not in behalf of the fair the extravagances of knight-errantry. But the Grecian tragedies might have taught him better. The Christian Scriptures might have taught him better. In nothing, did the originality of Christ's character as a Reformer appear more conspicuous, than in his recognition of the claims of woman to the protection and fealty of him to whom she was allied. It was emphatically a new commandment. Well might the daughters of Jerusalem weep for Him! and well their faithfulness testified their gratitude,

> Who, when Apostles shrunk, could danger brave,
> Last at his Cross, and earliest at his grave!

Had those derogatory opinions been confined to the poetry of Milton, they had been comparatively harmless; but, unfortunately for those connected with him, they were carried into practice, and rendered him, in his domestic relations, among the least amiable of men. His "Doctrine and Discipline of Divorce," instead of resulting from a judgment uninfluenced by personal considerations, was known to be written *to serve a turn;* a circumstance likely to impress the public not very favorably in regard to the integrity of his other conclusions. The fact itself of his bride's quitting his house so soon after entering it, is a presumption how arbitrary was the authority from which she fled. No where could be found a fitter exemplification of the popular adage, that "a democrat abroad is a despot at home." The most vehement assailant of the regal prerogative, was the most sturdy asserter of his own; while the unfortunate monarch whom he laboured to dethrone and destroy, (however blindly tenacious of the privileges to which he was born, and the prejudices in which he was bred) manifested, in every minor charity of life, the utmost condescension.

Next to the Doctrine of Divorce comes the plea for Polygamy—on the singular assumption of its not being expressly interdicted in the New Testament. To any single-minded searcher of the truth, the words of St Matthew might prove sufficiently explicit. But if there were a doubt as to this, still the point of duty would remain settled, when the obligations of honour, as in the present instance, supply or are superadded to those of Christianity. Whether the Gospel admitted the right to a plurality of wives, or not, if a man renounce that right by a voluntary vow, and bind

himself, in a prescribed form of words, to one exclusively, the restriction is established.

In the parental character, where no scriptural dogma could be cited for his support, our author was equally tyrannical. Little cause had his unhappy daughters to glory in being the descendants of a great poet! In the deplorable ignorance to which he condemned them, far from relishing, they could scarce read his productions; yet were doomed after his blindness, by a refinement on oppression, to become his mechanical medium of enjoying the productions of others. Like an Eastern sovereign banqueting apart and interterdicting all participation, the solitary appropriated his favorite classics through the agency of those to whom they were a dead letter. Let any one imagine the daily task of repeating hundreds and thousands of words—and that, too, with tones and emphasis to satisfy the fastidious ear of a critical adept—yet deriving no sense from this Babel of sounds,—and the hewers of wood and drawers of water will become objects of envy! Yet Milton resented any resistance to his authority from its victims; and in the famous "nuncupative will," so righteously set aside upon its litigation, extended this resentment even beyond the grave. We sicken at such an ebullition of domestic despotism. Believing, as we do, in the benignant influences of the spirit of poetry, as second only to the spirit of piety, we must nevertheless prefer truth to theory, and acknowledge the humiliating exception here presented to us.

Let no one say, we are not to look for educated females at that period,—since it produced Lady Russell and Mrs Hutchinson. Had it not been so, we should yet have required of Milton in this, as in other matters, to go beyond his age. In the reaction on this point which has taken place subsequently, it may as usual, be pushed too far. Within a few years, the "Anti-Jacobin" denounced as *unsexed females*, those who allowed themselves to be initiated in the science of Botany; and the animal organization might now be studied with less reproach than formerly the organization of a plant. We are not prepared to maintain the necessity of an equality of knowledge between the sexes, either in kind or degree,—their different situations considered; but, in the case of Milton's daughters, common justice dictated that when extraordinary services were demanded, ordinary cultivation should not be withheld. In noticing the intolerant temper of Milton, his actions or writings indicative of this trait have been adduced independently of any regular order. In what remains of these observations, we shall allow ourselves to follow the same desultory course.

If Milton's "Sonnets" are beneath him, it is of small consequence; and the bon-mot of Johnson on their behalf, however wont to be accused of hostility to their author, is both a finer de-

fence and a loftier panegyric, than has yet been elicited from his professed admirers. The sonnet measure, like the Spenser stanza, although suited to the Italian, rarely assimilates with our sterner dialect. But what shall be said of his version of the "Psalms?" Here were themes and metres worthy of him,—the holy ground he so habitually traversed. Yet in the list of those who have at various times handled the harp of David, we recall none who have touched its chords with less sweetness or less solemnity. It is scarce conceivable how such unpretending minstrels as Watts and Doddridge should here transcend the muse of Milton!

His Thalia and Melpomene, "L'Allegro" and "Il Penseroso," are familiar to us all, as displaying a beautiful succession of alternating imagery, to illustrate the lights and shadows of life; in a measure which has become a favorite, not merely on account of its "fatal facility," but its adoption for the more extended efforts of the most popular among living writers.

Much that most charms us in the "Masque" which immortalized Ludlow Castle, blending poetical with its feudal associations, appears caught from the incomparable "Tempest" of Shakspeare. Ariel, however, is a more interesting personage than Comus;

As nought he did in hate, but all in honour.

Various learning and critical research have been employed in ascertaining the other and more occult contributors * to enrich this interlude. Yet nothing has more internal evidence of being Miltonic. If the machinery appertained to others, the noble versification was his own. Where acquirement and talent are commensurate, the resources of memory sometimes mix unintentionally with those of invention; and he might be allowed to borrow from some that went before, who was destined to lend to all that came after. This piece was composed in 1634, under loyal auspices. But when it became expedient, at a later period, to multiply topics of complaint against kings, and kingly pastimes, Milton, with an inconsistency not uncommon in partisans, attacked the representation of Masques, to which he once thus successfully ministered. † There was some disingenuousness with this versatility. For although these pageants were favorites with their Majesties (before whom all Ben Jonson's were presented), as gratifying equally the eye and the mind, they were not peculiar to the Court, but often, as in the instance of "Comus," made part of the revels at the private seats of the nobility.

* Such as Fletcher in his Arcadian Comedy, &c.
† See his "Ready and Easy Way to establish a Free Commonwealth," 1660.

Of the remaining poetics of Milton, our last remark will be on the first wherein he appeared as a Lyrist. The "Ode on the Nativity" contains the like mixture of sacred with profane imagery, which occurred and was objected to in "Paradise Lost," together with a prurience of fancy which no youth of twenty could now venture to indulge. The juvenile years of the writer, and the secondary meanings which the same words acquire at different times, may apologize for the occasional use of phraseology that strikes one at this day, as light or even ludicrous. "Angels" are spoken of as "*bright harnessed*;" and "sit about the stable, in *serviceable order*." The shepherds on the lawn, sit "*chatting* in a rustic row;" little dreaming that "the mighty Pan" was "come to live with them." And no wonder! The mighty Pan with *Jewish* shepherds! In conclusion, when the "Passion" is described, the poet introduces the conceit, that the "leaves" of his lament should be "black," and the "letters washed by his tears to a *wannish white*." On the whole, Milton's lyrical productions can add nothing to his poetical renown; but the one we have been considering will have another recommendation, to those who would trace the progress of religious opinions. His at this time were evidently in concert with the Calvinistic notion of the atonement;

> He that dwelt above—
> Emptied his glory, even to nakedness;
> And that great covenant which we still transgress
> Entirely satisfied;
> And the full wrath beside
> Of vengeful justice bore for our excess."

His phrases, too, of "Infant God" and "Trinal Unity" are of the same cast. The Orthodox are entitled to this statement of the evidence in their favour, because Unitarians have appeared too ready to sing *Io Triumphe* in regard to Milton. If of the same *genus*, he was yet of a species too peculiar to warrant any exulting appropriation. Indeed the custom of marshalling great names and challenging comparison, has too long prevailed. It has been the resort of Infidels against Christians, and Christians against each other, but after all it is not the best of arguments on either side. The object is—or should be—to think aright; whether Milton thought with the sect to which we belong, or otherwise, is of less concern, since, although an eminent, he was yet a fallible individual, the strength of whose prejudices equalled that of his parts, upon all questions connected with civil and ecclesiastical polity; insomuch, that a surer leader, if leader we must have, could be found among men of abilities less imposing, but judgment more dispassionate.

Subject to such deduction, we receive the prose works of Milton; and it can be the better afforded, as enough will yet remain to comprise, in the estimate of every one, a large amount of in-

tellectual treasure. If too ponderous for common use, it will amply reward the research of the virtuoso into the massy literature of that day; the style of which, like its antique coins, is regarded with curiosity and respect, though it could not be admitted again into circulation. Even better specimens of this style than are frequent in our author, those of Clarendon, Hooker, or Taylor could not be safely imitated now. As before hinted, there is not time to follow out its involutions. A recent attempt of this sort, by a person of no less capacity than the preacher Irving, though encouraged at the outset, was unattended with ultimate success. And if Milton's diction appeared not in favour originally, when pedantry, no less than prolixity, was a general characteristic of writers; there is less chance for its reception at present, when the revolutions of taste have closed the heathen Pantheon, and the illustrations of our literature are chosen from the realities of science, rather than the fictions of mythology. The manner, at the best, of any writer, is an inferior, temporary merit. The outward, artificial drapery of his thoughts, is liable to become soon out of fashion; but the native principle of intelligence within, remains unimpaired and imperishable. Thus it is with Milton, whenever Milton walks abroad by himself at distance from either schoolman or Puritan. When, apart from the imposing dogmas of the one and the canting mystics of the other, he gives us what are properly his own views, they are eminently rational. In his opinion as to personifying the Deity to suit our apprehensions, he not only follows the course which the Scriptures themselves sanction, but commends himself, we think, to the common understanding; since (whatever may have been vouchsafed to some gifted seer) mankind at large will do well to remember what has been forcibly stated, that "whoever adores an impersonal God, has none; but embarks on an abyss, that first engulphs his powers, and next, himself!" And if from speculation we turn to facts, the history of such as have devoted themselves to this effort, whether philosopers or fanatics—for extremes have met here—from Plato and Pythagoras to the Fakirs of India and Quietists of France; the history of such presents humiliating proof of the wanderings of wisdom, and the weakness of the finite, employed upon the infinite! If the rapt spirit of Milton confessed that it faltered, how can it be expected from less sublimated intelligences

> To lay their just hands on that golden key
> That opes the palace of eternity?

So, also, his faith in the sleep of the soul, though participated by many Christians as the one most consonant with reason and revelation, is yet curious as being *his*. To one so imaginative, there could be nought alluring, but the contrary, in an hypothesis,

which, denying the existence of separate spirits, destroyed at one stroke the whole dynasty of spectres, the *dramatis personæ* of so large a portion of our poetry! The opposite scheme, harmonizing, as it does, with all our visionary tendencies, was so fitted to be cherished by himself of all men, that his inability, nevertheless, to adopt it, may be suggested to its advocates as some evidence of its futility. We know it is painful to contemplate a period of prolonged inactivity, but it is painful only in contemplation. And why is the long time that may elapse after leaving a scene of action, a more rational cause for regret than the long time that elapsed before entering on it? Without, however, intruding on the boundaries of the polemic, or presuming to comprehend what an apostle declared to be "a mystery,"—for ourselves we must say, that when at times we have realized the refreshing influences of a nightly slumber upon our weariness of mind and body, we have looked forward, complacently, to the *final* repose for a more complete renovation; and felt willing that He who had watched the one, should be implicitly trusted as guardian of the other.

After viewing Milton on his higher ground, to descend to his controversial tracts * becomes a disagreeable duty. Yet they have the good effect to make us felicitate ourselves on the days in which we live. If the demon of controversy is yet loose upon the earth, he is transformed into an angel of light, compared with the ugly, hissing, venomous serpent, in whose guise he was formerly suffered to assail. Fortunately for the cause of manners, the vituperative wars of Milton and his antagonists, were rarely waged in the vulgar tongue; and, so far at least, the commonalty experienced "the bliss of ignorance." When he complains of having "fallen on evil days,—on evil tongues," we are filled with commiseration. But when reading the "Tenure of Kings and Magistrates," or the "Defence of the People of England," our wonder only is, that he did not perish by private violence, like his friend Marvell, or by public sentence, like his compatriots Russell and Sidney. The hand that penned such a paper would have been severed from its owner, in the "golden days" of Queen Elizabeth; and in those of "the glorious memory," had been, at least, paralyzed by a prosecution. Within a few years, treatises far less obnoxious consigned Wakefield and Palmer to imprisonment and exile. Yet the Regicide Defender was allowed to pursue his studies and prolong his days unproscribed; and thus the lenity of a Stuart left us "Paradise Lost."

* Connected with one of these is a circumstance of some local interest to ourselves;—the first English version of the "Defensio" is ascribed to an ancestor of Washington.

As republicans, it becomes the more incumbent on us to bear testimony against the extravagances of those who are classed under the same denomination; and to renounce the latitudinarian doctrine, that a king can be rightfully put to death, whenever a dominant party of his subjects may adjudge him to die. There is little danger that the spirit of republican liberty become too feeble; much, that it become too bold and ferocious. We owe this protest to ourselves, but still more to our fathers, who achieved the work of our revolution, undefaced by those atrocities for which revolutions are wont to be execrated. In this exemption consists its most distinguishing and elevating peculiarity. The multitude regard the termination of the struggle; but the sage the temper with which it was maintained. We feel there is little in common between ourselves and the *Independents* of England. The "stamp-act," here, occasioned as much disaffection to the reigning monarch as the "ship-money," there; but none would have had it bring him to the block.

It is now time to conclude these strictures. Let any who may be tempted to accuse them of asperity, reflect how strenuous an effort, on the other side, has lately been made, abroad and at home; and how mischievous to every community is the erecting of defective human models for imitation! If Milton have benefited the freedom of the press, and done good service in any way to the cause of civil and religious emancipation, let it be acknowledged and recorded to his honour. But let the deductions from those services be equally stated; let him not become the object of exclusive and inordinate panegyric, especially here, where no motive exists for rhapsody or reservation. In England, where the same parties that divided the state while he lived, are yet continued under different names, we can account for extravagant or fallacious representation; but with us is no interest, to prevent our impartiality. Yet the aberrations of a master-spirit are of all others the most misleading; and Milton, like his own archangel, draws after him a third part of the morning stars. The time is long passed, when men bowed to the work of their own hands; but the more insidious, because more intellectual idolatry, which enshrines a favorite name in the inmost soul, is yet a besetting sin of society. The apotheosis of heroes has grown obsolete; but deify to a venerated literary champion, and consecrate opinions because associated with his name, which had been abhorrent in the abstract, is a prevalent infirmity of the best minds. Let those, who call Milton "master," ponder the tendency of his lessons. He anticipated the past Jacobinism of France, and the present Radicalism of England. He profaned the sanctity of his muse by suffering her to sing pæans to Cromwell, a profligate in youth, a tyrant in age, and a fanatic throughout. He justified

the sanguinary execution of Charles I. He would have remanded the female sex to the condition they held in the regions of Paganism. He would have substituted Decades for the christian Sabbath. Eloquence, upon such topics, should be looked upon but as a splendid sin. We cannot but deplore the selection of such a man,—however exalted by genius or enlightened by learning,—for an example of the perfection of our nature; and deprecate the publication of the "Treatise on Christian Doctrine," if it lead to the subversion of christian practice.

LETTER FROM AN AMERICAN IN EUROPE.

Göttingen.

DEAR W——,

ONE of the most striking features in the German character is a quiet and equable disposition. This is also accompanied by a mechanical self-accommodation to the various and conflicting circumstances of daily occurrence. Every man, woman, and child seems to have fallen "just in the niche they were ordained to fill;" and all the operations of society proceed with an evenness and noiselessness, which would be inconceivable to the bustlers of New York or Boston. In obedience to a law as uniform and silent as that which governs the motions of the planets, a fixed hour brings the German artisan or trader to his shop, the professor to his study, the student, pipe in mouth, to the window-sill, to gaze upon vacancy. With the return of a Sabbath or a festival, a certain change takes place in the dress and place of resort. Political, and commercial, and literary vicissitudes produce no sensible fluctuations on the surface of character; and where these are powerless, we cannot expect that such ordinary events as marriages and deaths should very strongly affect the feelings. Still the parade of sensibility, as might be anticipated, supplies after some sort the absence of the reality. It is not uncommon to conclude a pathetic newspaper account of the decease of husband or father (which is here generally inserted as an advertisement, signed by the nearest surviving relatives) by a notice that business is continued as usual, and a request for further favours from customers. The following, from a Brunswick paper, is no unfair specimen of the usual style of these advertisements:

Godfrey Zimmermann, leather-breeches maker, departed this life last evening, at seven minutes past eight, in the 53d year of his age. His disorder was the gout in the stomach, with which he had been afflicted for more than five months, and which he bore with truly Christian patience and fortitude. His mourning widow and orphan children,

oppressed with the weight of their loss, beg for the silent sympathy of their friends, whom they inform, that the business of the deceased will be conducted as usual, and request the continuance of that kind patronage, which has ever been thankfully received.

WILHELMINA ZIMMERMANN,
(Maiden-name Munster)
ADOLPH ZIMMERMANN,
KARL ZIMMERMANN.

The word "silent" may need explanation; without the intimation it conveys, the relatives and friends would feel bound to send letters of condolence, and the postage of many letters would be expensive to the bereaved family.

A man died in Göttingen a few weeks since in the vigor of life. The day after the funeral, I saw the widow with two or three of her female friends in the garden where I live, hiding her anguish under a calm, and even very cheerful countenance. Indeed they all seem fully to realize, that "all the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely players;" accordingly they sing when at church, and cry bitterly at a funeral or at parting with a friend, because this is the proper scene for singing and weeping; but the next hour finds them in another act of the play, and they are buying, or selling, or smoking with their usual serenity. Even the soldiers, a name synonymous in other countries with ardour and impetuosity, are here the mere machines which modern warriors admire as the *beau idéal* of military discipline. Their firmness is renowned, but I have never heard them commended for quickness and alacrity. Madame de Staël has most justly ridiculed their pedantic system of tactics, which makes them contentedly acquiesce in a defeat, if it is only effected according to rule.

I have heard a circumstance related, which may be mentioned in this connexion. A vessel in its passage down the Elbe ran afoul of one of the floating mills, that are numerous on that river. The shock was so violent, that the floating mill instantly parted from its moorings, and drifted rapidly towards the bank. It seemed impossible to prevent its striking, and that must have been attended by the total ruin of the machinery. Had the people on board been Americans or English, it can be imagined what confusion, and bellowing, and bustle would have followed. None of this from these noiseless Germans. Not a word was spoken. Each one knew the only means that could save their boat. These were taken in silence, and the machinery was saved.

To this quiet disposition, the students at the universities form the sole exception. These young men roar and brawl in the streets and over their jugs of beer; they seek quarrels, and fight them out; and never does the first sun of a new year arise (the season when the poor police-guard must run the gauntlet of academic persecution) without shining on broken windows and other evi-

dences of the uproar of the night. But when they return to their own homes, they drop quietly into the various situations for which they are fitted, and the din and riot of the university is only remembered as a feverish dream.

I know not whether it be attributable to this easy disposition, or to the peculiarity of their climate, but this people is assuredly the least cleanly I ever saw. This is particularly true of the lowest order, but is not inapplicable to the highest. Neatness principally regards our persons, our habitations, and our food. In the first the Germans fall even behind the Italians, in the second behind the French, and in all three behind the English. Even in the best houses in Dresden and Frankfort, the knife and fork are never wiped during dinner, however numerous the dishes, and you must put your fingers into the sugar-bowl; while in France and Italy there is here and there a place, where English travellers have introduced better customs.

The inns, in Europe more than in this country, furnish a pretty just criterion of a neighbourhood; and in the villages and small towns in Germany, such abodes of filth, and flies, and darkness! It were purgatory enough for an epicure to be obliged to sojourn, only for a short time, among their "golden lions" and "red horses." In matter of food, he is safest who calls only for bread and beer; often he could not get any thing else if he would. He is fortunate if his sour brown bread have not a fair proportion of sand; and the beer, for ingredients, colour, and taste, is different from any liquor known in New England. If the luckless traveller is constrained to lodge in a place without city walls and conveniences, he must fain content him with Hottentot accommodation. Fortunately the cities are frequent, and in them there is less that is revolting. But even in Jena, Heidelberg, Worms, and elsewhere, we are glad to seize on historical and literary recollections, to escape from the less agreeable circumstances that press on our immediate observation.

The villages are in general insufferably dirty. Oftentimes the only road through the closely crammed hovels serves at once, by a happy economy, as a passage for the inhabitants, and a channel for a brook. If there be pond or puddle in the neighbourhood of a village, the children are sure to be paddling in it. This custom is, however, by no means confined to the rustic urchins. I see almost every day the future burghers of Göttingen washing themselves in the gutter, wading in it, and spattering each other with the water. It appears to be something innate; they take to the gutter as naturally as the ducks.

One walk through the market, where the peasant women sit with their baskets full of the various articles destined to be eaten and drunk, would furnish many particulars which we should be

glad to forget. Even as to ordinary neatness of dress and person, I cannot easily credit all I have heard, nor could you all I have seen. But these are no very inviting topics, and I know you will pardon my not entering into further details.

Something much more agreeable is the universal taste for music. Instrumental music, in particular, is carried to very high perfection. Piano-fortes and organs are to be found even in the houses of common mechanics, who can hardly command the comforts of life. Nor do females alone perform on them. One of my first acquaintances was a theological professor, who has a fine instrument in his study. They are also in the rooms of many students. The German military bands are the finest in Europe. Since the occupation of Naples by the Austrians, one of the most favorite amusements of these light-hearted people has been going to hear a choice band of Bohemians, attached to the garrison, who play every Thursday evening.

Some may doubt, whether it be a cause or a consequence of this taste, that in every village school, the two grand requisites in a teacher are, that he be able to instruct in reading and psalm-singing. So every body knows how to sing. The students often make the streets ring with their boisterous music. Even the children intermix regular songs with their holiday sports; and I have often been pleased with listening to a joyous concert from a party of mechanics, going home from their day's work in the city to some of the neighbouring villages.

It is a custom in some parts of the country, at the festivals of Michaelmas and Easter, for the instructer, followed by his scholars dressed in their neatest clothing, to go from house to house, and sing some piece of music before each in the public street. The occupants of the house are of course expected to put something into the box of the party. In the little city of Chemnitz, not far from Dresden, I have heard some very pleasing music from such a choir. The boys were of various ages, and in addition to the charm of their clear youthful voices, gave proof of having been well instructed. There is something remarkable in this national coincidence of taste. Write me in your next how much of this you believe to be factitious, how much to be natural. Ever yours.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

FROM THE SPANISH OF VILLEGAS.*

'T is sweet, in the green Spring,
To gaze upon the wakening fields around;
Birds in the thicket sing,
Winds whisper, waters prattle from the ground;
A thousand odours rise,
Breathed up from blossoms of a thousand dyes.

The pine and poplar keep
Cool from intruding suns their twilight nook;
The lime's low branches sweep
The broken crystal of the glittering brook;
The soft green meadow seems
Spread for a place of banquets and of dreams.

Thou, who alone art fair,
And whom alone I love, art far away;
Unless thy smile be there
It makes me sad to see the earth so gay.
I care not if the train
Of leaves and flowers and blossoms go again.

B.

* Those who delight in Spanish literature will not be displeased to see the graceful original of these lines. It is here given in the ancient orthography in which the translator found it. In the last stanza of the version, he has ventured to take some liberty with the sentiment, for which his apology must be the extreme difficulty of making any approach to the beautiful and harmonious ease of the original, consistently with strict fidelity to the sense.

O, quan dulce, i suave,
Es ver al campo, quando mas recrea;
En el se quexa el ave,
El viento espira, agua lisongea,
I las pintadas flores
Crian mil visos, paren mil olores.

El alamo, i el pino,
Sirven de estorbos à la luz de Febo;
Brinda el baso continó
Del claro arroyo, con aljofar nuevo;
I la tendida grama
Mesa à la gula es, i al sueño cama.

Tu, solamente bella,
Nos haces falta, Tyndarias graciosa;
I si tu blanca hicella
No te nos presta como el alva hermosa,
Lo dulce i lo suave
Quan amargo será, quan duro, i grave.

FRAGMENT.

The year has woke in beauty! Lo, how still
The vapours linger on the wood-crowned hill;
How, like a dream, the dewy morning breaks,
And o'er the East her golden tresses shakes;
How, in the joy of her sweet heraldry,
She takes her rosy footsteps up the sky!
And see! before her radiant-pinioned way
Planets retire and glittering worlds obey!
The dim, cold stars, their weary vigils o'er,
Down the lone vales their fading lustre pour,
Until, as if the coming pomp they knew,
They bury all their glories in the blue,
Dividing inward on their march of light,
To wait the splendour which has conquered night.

The clouds are leaving earth;—behold them rise
Like loitering lovers, when, in sad surprise,
Young light has broke upon their fond delay,
And morning shames them from their dreams away.
See how they lift them from her mountain breast
To sail in beauty round the home of rest,
While the green summits, bursting on the skies,
Catch the first greeting of those golden dyes,
Till bathed at last in one warm flood of rays,
They issue blushing from the cold embrace!

The deep-hued air is motionless around,—
Sea knows no heaving and the earth no sound;
Ascending fragrance crowns each quivering hill,
The flowers breathe odour, and the dews stand still.
How eloquently deep such praises are!
The land an altar—and the offering there!
The Spirit's splendours with its powers unfurled,
While a calm incense steals from all the world!

Now is the joyous Sabbath of the year,
The worship of the seasons. Now appear
The roses breaking in their rainbow pride,
With all the stirring beauties of the bride,
When first she bursts upon the ravished sight,
And scatters magic round her path of light!
The morn of roses!—glad and beautiful
Lone wreaths are blooming round the grottos cool,
And, in sweet solitudes, their peerless dyes
Glow deeper yet for wood-nymphs' sacred eyes.

Here they unfold their wildering witchery,
Far in the bowers where Beauty loves to hie,
And tangling round her straying sandals there,
In fairy fetters hold the imprisoned fair,
And, in the Eden luxury of bloom,
Woo her to slumber in the wild perfume.

Oh! that the year were one such noiseless day
As this now bursting on its ocean way;
Summer and silence, all the mellowed hours,
A life of bloom with worship of the flowers!
Bright rosebuds clustering on Time's weary ways,
Like an undying beauty round our days!

G. M.

THE VILLAGE CHURCH.

Sweet home of peace! the ling'ring day,
Still plays upon thy turrets grey;
But silent now the voice of prayer
Which was once uprose so sweetly there;
The cricket's fitful cry alone
Is mingled with the low wind's moan.
Sadly they seem to wail the fate,
That left thy altars desolate.

Sweet home of peace! how oft I 've stood
Amid thy little solitude,
A truant boy stolen forth to get
The crane's-bill and the violet,—
And listened to the village hum
Which on the quiet air would come,
With the long echoing laugh and shout,
Sent shrilly from the urchin rout.

And oft at Autumn's balmy eve,
When the bright flowers began to leave
The faded grass, and gloriously
The harvest moon went up the sky;
From the far distant greenwood tree,
The kit's light notes of melody,
Stole upward to the holy ground,
As joyously the dance went round,

Here, when the Sabbath day was done,
And ruddily the Summer sun

Shone o'er the little vale below,—
Uprose the hymn so sweet, so slow,
The traveller in the distant glen
Paused on his way to catch again
The lingering notes, till parting day,
Threw its cold shadows o'er his way.

Those days have passed; and mournfully
The chilly wind goes rustling by,
But finds not there those beauteous flowers
It sported with in happier hours;
And gentle forms who loved to gaze
Upon their bloom in youthful days,
Like them have passed away and died,
And humbly here sleep side by side.

F. M.

THE SOLDIER'S BRIDE.

There 's a sound of mirth in the festive room,
And a glittering troop of the proud are come;
There are ladies fair, and courtiers free,
And they meet for the evening revelry;
The lamps in the mirrored halls are bright,
And the air is full of music and light;
Yet a cloud hangs over the scene so gay,
For the pride of that hall is far away.

She is gone from the friends she loved so well,
She is gone from the home where she joyed to dwell,
She has broken tender and long-worn ties,
And has wandered far from her native skies;
And her parents, when her name they hear,
Scarce smother the sigh, or hide the tear,—
For they feel, though among the proud and gay,
That the hope of their age is far away.

A soldier's bride,—and her love must go,
To a distant land and a dreaded foe;
Alone shall he cross the stormy main,
To wrestle with death on the battle plain?
And none be near in that time of dread,
To welcome him safe, or weep him dead?
Yes, *one*,—adieu to the haunts of the gay,—
She has gone with her husband far away.

In her father's halls there is revelry,
But the child of his love—oh, where is she!
'T is Autumn now, and the fitful breeze
Is shedding the leaves of the faded trees;
With a sullen murmur the dark waves fret,
And home's dear thought grows dearer yet;
Does she shrink at last, and repent the day
When she went with her soldier far away?

No; she kneels by that wounded soldier's bed,
And her white arm stays his sinking head,
And she holds to his pallid lip the draught,
And her tears gush forth as the cup is quaffed;
She weeps,—but her tears are joy's full tide,
For dearer his life than the world beside,
And he lives,—and her father's halls so gay,
Have no joy like the wanderer's far away.

CORNELIA.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

Five Books of the History of C. Cornelius Tacitus, with his Treatise on the Manners of the Germans, and his Life of Agricola. From the last German Edition of the Works of Tacitus. With English Notes, original and compiled, by E. B. WILLISTON, Professor of the Greek and Latin Languages and Literature in the American Literary, Scientific, and Military Academy. Hartford. 1826. 12mo. pp. 315.

As the parts of Tacitus comprised in this volume are read in several of the colleges and higher schools of this country, it is of some importance that notice should be given of the manner in which they have been now edited. In a slight perusal of the "Germany" and "Agricola," the following errors have been marked; *Occanus* for *Oceanus*, *incesse* for *inesse*, *idem* for *iidem*, *septæ* for *septa*, *tamem* for *tamen*, *alcam* for *aleam*, *patiendi* for *partiendi*, *incusaturus* for *incursaturus*, *nitendi* for *nitenti*, *præsidiis* for *prædiis*, *tennatur* for *tenuatur*, *care* for *capere*, *viriam* for *virium*, *invita is* for *invitatis*, *nostrum* for *nostram*, *dominationibus* for *dominationis*, *avaris* for *avari*, *famulatæ* for *famulatu*, *exercitas* for *exercitus*, *reipublicas* for *reipublicæ*, *strepit* for *strepitu*, *acurerant* for *accurrerant*, *quærela* for *querela*, and the word *est*, in one place, is wholly omitted. This is not intended as a complete list, but as a specimen only of the errors, with which this work abounds. As the part looked over is about a quarter of the whole text, some estimate can be made of the number of such mistakes, which might probably be found in the whole volume.

The editor says, that his "edition is believed to be entirely free from errors in punctuation, which are very numerous in former American editions." The changes in the pointing, therefore, from the common editions, are to be considered as *improvements*, introduced by Professor Williston. We will select a few examples, from many which might be given, of variations in punctuation from all editions we have seen; as they will fully show the ability which this edition displays in his particular department. In the tenth section of the "Germany," the following sentence is thus pointed in the common editions. "Virgam, frugiferæ arbori decisam, in surculos amputant, eosque notis quibusdam discretos, super candidam vestem temere ac fortuito spargunt." Professor Williston has inserted a *semicolon* after *eosque*. In the thirty-eighth section of the same treatise, in the clause, "Nunc de Suevis dicendum est, quorum non una, ut Cattorum Tencterorumve, gens," &c., we find a *period* after the word *Cattorum!* Commas are inserted where we never saw them before. Thus, in the phrase, "Ita, sublata spe veniæ, tandem sumite animum," &c. an additional comma is placed between *spe* and *veniæ*. But this immaculate punctuation sometimes happens to coincide with variations in the text. In the speech of Galgacus, this chieftain says of the Romans, as we find the language in the common editions, "Si locuples hostis est, avari,—si pauper,—ambitiosi:" &c. Professor Williston has edited the passage in this manner, "Si locuples hostis est, avaris si pauper, ambitiosi;" &c. This is nonsense doubly fortified. But enough of punctuation.

A brief life of Tacitus, copied almost verbatim from Lempriere's Classical Dictionary, is prefixed to this volume. As Professor Williston is professor of Latin *literature*, as well as of the Latin language, and as he makes no reference to Lempriere, he adopts the life as standing on his own authority, and is accountable for its errors. One sentence only will be noticed, as it seems, from a verbal alteration in Lempriere's language, to have passed under the particular inspection of the editor. The sentence is this; "As some of the ancients observe, all the writings of Tacitus were contained in thirty books, of which we have now left only sixteen of his annals, and five of his history." It would certainly be no easy matter to write another sentence no longer than this, which should contain an equal number of mistakes. As it is said, "we have now left only sixteen books of his annals," it seems to be implied, that there were originally more than sixteen, which there is no reason to believe. It is said, "we have now sixteen books of his annals;" but of the sixteen books, four are wholly lost; and, at least, three others, and the fifth book of the history, are preserved in a mutilated state.

Who the ancients are, who observe, "that all the writings of Tacitus were contained in thirty books," we are entirely ignorant.

It may, indeed, be inferred from an incidental remark of St Jerome, that he reckoned the number of books of the Annals and of the History together, to be thirty; but there is good reason to believe, that he was wrong in this enumeration, and that the History alone consisted of thirty books. But, however this may be, no support can be derived from this source, to the declaration above.

We are told, that this edition is "from the last German edition of the works of Tacitus." But this information, as here given, is of very little value; as whether, by the last German edition, the editor means, that he has given us the last revised text of his author, which has been published in Germany,—which we doubt whether he has seen; or, that he copied from the last edition of Tacitus printed in Germany,—which he certainly could not know; or, which is more probable, that he has copied from the latest German edition he has seen, whatever number may have appeared since,—we are left entirely in the dark. We would add only, that we consider the publication of such a book as this we have now noticed, a serious calamity. Students, in many instances, will be induced,—we are sorry to be obliged to say it,—from the circumstance of its having English notes, to procure this edition, and will find themselves in constant perplexity and vexation from being misled by its innumerable blunders. As to the Notes, so far as we have examined them, they are a very proper accompaniment to such a text. Most of them are historical and geographical; and many of them well enough in their place, that is, in the larger editions of Tacitus, and in other books for which they were originally written; but very few of them are grammatical, and such as illustrate the peculiar style and genius of the author,—of which latter kind of notes are those which the student, on first reading Tacitus, more particularly needs.

Woodstock, or the Cavalier; a Tale of the Year Sixteen Hundred and Fifty-one. By the Author of Waverley, &c. Philadelphia. 1826. 2 vols. 12mo.

Woodstock is a picture of England during the period of the Commonwealth, after the ruin of the royal cause at the battle of Worcester; when the son of the unfortunate Charles the First was hunted like a noxious beast, from fastness to fastness. The story is intended to exhibit the exertions and sacrifices which his adherents were ready to make in this hour of his peril, their devout loyalty and chivalrous honour, which had been called into strong action by the troubled state of the times, together with the habits of reckless dissipation which the same troubles had generated in a portion of the Cavaliers, as contrasted with the contempt for established orders in church and state, the spiritual pride, puritanical principles, and religious enthusiasm of the prevailing party. With

the exception of Cromwell and the fugitive prince himself, the great men of the period are but sparingly exhibited. It is, as every production of such high and practised talent must be, spirited and interesting; but after all, only a lively sketch, compared with the story which a period so fertile in great events, and strong points of national and individual character, might have furnished to the author of the tale of Old Mortality. It is a picture, showy and effective in its general appearance, but too hastily thrown off to admit of perfect finish and masterly execution throughout. The only portraits are those of the prince and Cromwell. The former we suppose to be justly represented as gay and witty, dissipated and brave, with a good understanding, and but little control over his passions, or true nobleness of feeling. Cromwell, whose character all must agree in wishing to have seen fully portrayed by a man capable of conceiving and displaying the workings of his bold, subtle, and enthusiastic spirit, is introduced but two or three times, and not with great effect. We have a specimen of the corruption of principle, occasioned by excessive boldness of religious speculation among men of strong feelings and uncultivated understandings, at a time when no one looked to any guide but his own inward light. The more rational and stable doctrines of Presbyterianism have also their representatives, as well as the fanatic zeal with which the Independents of the army of the Commonwealth overflowed. The representative of the dissipated, reckless, and profligate part of the Cavaliers, occupies a disproportionate share of attention, when it is considered that the swaggering bully of the seventeenth century, was essentially the same with him of the nineteenth, and that the period to which he belonged, afforded a rich harvest of interesting character, peculiar to itself. No one of the *dramatis personæ* attracts our attention, or interests our feelings in a very peculiar degree, and the narrative recommends itself little by skilfulness of construction. The individual scenes are tolerably well executed. The personages act and speak in character, and do not allow our attention to slumber. These descriptions could not have cost our author much effort, and might easily be strung together into a continued narrative, but they afford little of that climax of interest, which attends an artfully wrought story,—little of that deep emotion, with which we contemplate the workings of gradually developed and powerfully sustained characters. Still, however, Woodstock can amuse and instruct, and bears the impress of its author. But we cannot help wishing that a period of English history, affording such ample materials for the full exercise of his powers, had engaged his attention at a time when his harvest of fame was not so abundant and secure, and when he felt that exertion was necessary to retain and vindicate the laurels he had won.

Summary of the Law of Bills of Exchange, Cash Bills, and Promissory Notes. By Sir JOHN BAYLEY, Knt., one of the Justices of His Majesty's Court of King's Bench. From the Fourth London Edition, revised by the Author. With Notes and References to American Decisions, by WILLARD PHILLIPS and SAMUEL E. SEWALL. Boston. 1826. 8vo. pp. 426.

So unsettled or so little known, in this country, was the law of bills and notes thirty-nine years ago, that, for the special benefit of professional and mercantile men, it was announced, in the most extensively circulated periodical journal of that time, that "on Friday, the 3d day of August [1787, the court at Philadelphia] gave judgment, in an action brought by the indorsee against the acceptors of a bill of exchange, in which the words *or order* were omitted; when, after a judicious and elaborate discussion of the subject, Mr Justice Shippen pronounced, that the action would not lie. This is a question," said the reporter, "which has never before been expressly determined in any court, here or in England." (*American Museum*, vol. ii. p. 469). Whether the case of Hill *v.* Lewis, 1 Salk. 132, and other cases, were overlooked; or whether it was supposed there might be a difference, in this respect, between a promissory note and a bill of exchange, it seems hardly worth while to conjecture. That such a question should be thought worthy of *elaborate discussion*, in the city of Philadelphia, sufficiently illustrates the rude state of the law-merchant, even at that comparatively recent period. Lord Mansfield, whose judgments form an era in this department of the law, had then just closed his splendid judicial labours of more than a quarter of a century; but his decisions were not very generally in the hands of professional gentlemen, and the state of the country, for fifteen years preceding, was not such as to put them on the alert to seek and treasure up the legal wisdom displayed in *His Majesty's* courts in Westminster Hall. The prior decisions of the English courts were few and meagre, on the doctrine of bills and notes, and little instruction, which would now be deemed valuable, could be derived from Malynes and Beawes's Lex Mercatoria, Marius's Advice, Molloy's Treatise, or the first edition of Cunningham, which then furnished all, or nearly all, the additional information to be obtained on this subject.

Mr Justice Gould, it is true, in 1771, pronounced Mr Cunningham's book to be a very good one (3 Wils. 212); and so it might have been, compared with other books, especially as a second edition had then recently been published, and Lord Mansfield's decisions, down to 1766, had been incorporated into it. Lord Holt had long before said the same of Marius's book. (2 Ld. Ray. 929, *n.*)

In 1789, Lovelass and Bayley each published a volume on the law of bills of exchange and promissory notes. Bayley's was a

very small book, and was called, in the law catalogues, his "Short Treatise." In 1790, Mr Kyd sent forth his excellent treatise, which, for a while, superseded the previous works on the subject; although Bayley's work was always highly esteemed as an accurate summary. Mr Chitty, in 1799, issued his practical treatise, which has since passed through five or six editions in England, and has been republished in this country with very valuable notes and references to our own decisions. Doubtless this book has been in much more general use in the United States, than any of its competitors. But it is, in our judgment, inferior in many respects to the last edition of Bayley, which has just been republished, with most valuable annotations and notes, by Messrs Phillips and Sewall, and which, we doubt not, will be regarded by the profession as the most valuable manual that has ever appeared on the subject of bills and notes.

"The present edition of this treatise," say the editors, "is taken from the last London edition, prepared by the author himself, whose well known talents and learning, and reputation as a lawyer and a judge of the Court of King's Bench, are a sufficient recommendation of the work, which, as it recently came from his hands [in 1822], is the fruit of his long experience, accumulated knowledge, and matured judgment. His statements of cases are remarkably concise and complete; he distinguishes the decided points with great accuracy, and lays down general doctrines comprehensively, and at the same time with clearness and precision; so that his work, while it is acceptable and useful to lawyers, may be easily understood and safely followed by others." This is a very just and accurate account of Mr Justice Bayley's "Summary;" and the distinctive character, here ascribed to it, constitutes its peculiar excellence. The succinctness of the text is somewhat relieved by the statement, in the margin, of the decided cases,—a method which would have greatly enhanced the value of Mr Chitty's work on the same subject, if he had chosen to adopt it.

The editors proceed; "A few recent English decisions, and all the Amercan cases within the knowledge of the editors, of which reports could be obtained, have been referred to, or inserted in this edition. As some of these cases embrace new points, the insertion of them rendered it necessary to make corresponding additions to the text, where they could be made without interrupting the connexion. The additions are included in brackets." The editors have exceedingly well accomplished what they undertook, and have so skilfully interwoven most of the American decisions into the original treatise, that few or no inequalities or blemishes are perceptible in the workmanship. Mr Phillips, by the publication of his essay on Insurance, had warranted high expectations concerning this edition of a work on another branch

of mercantile law; and the manner in which it is executed, while it increases our regret that he has left the profession, enables us to welcome, with great sincerity and pleasure, the first appearance, in this sphere of labour, of so learned and diligent an associate as Mr Sewall.

We feel bound to remark, that we were rather surprised not to find, in this edition of Bayley, the American cases on the subject of *want of consideration*, when objected to a promissory note. They could not have been omitted merely because they are contradictory; and the erudition and research evinced throughout the volume, seem hardly to allow the suggestion that they were not "within the knowledge of the editors." We are the more disappointed at this omission, as all the English treatises are very deficient on this topic, and as some American decisions, which we always deemed erroneous, are greatly shaken, if not overturned by subsequent adjudications.

It is also to be regretted, that the paging of the English edition is not retained in this. We had already felt the inconvenience of this omission, in reading a case in 3 Pickering, where Bayley (4th edition), 47, is cited. On turning to that page, in Messrs Phillips and Sewall's edition, we could find no such doctrine as it was cited to support. We found it afterwards, on page 42. The paging of all books, that are cited as authority, ought to be uniform in the different impressions. The value of the American edition of Starkie's Reports, and of some other books, is greatly diminished by want of attention to this circumstance.

The Lay of Gratitude; consisting of Poems, occasioned by the recent Visit of La Fayette to the United States. By DANIEL BRYAN. Philadelphia. 1826. 8vo. pp. 104.

THE late visit of Lafayette to this country, not only gave birth to innumerable demonstrations of patriotism and gratitude, in the way of processions, bonfires, illuminations, dinners, and speeches, but also awakened the sleeping muses of our prosaic hemisphere, and was the cause of divers congratulatory odes, rhyming mottos, and poetical addresses. In the instance of the work before us, it is made the subject of loftier and more elaborate strains. The author has attempted to record and perpetuate in verse the enthusiasm of that occasion. The principal poems in this collection, are, "The Greeting," a poetical address, in the anapæstic measure of Beattie's "Hermit," supposed to have been recited to Lafayette at Yorktown; and "The Valedictory," a poem in two cantos, the first of which contains the address of President Adams to Lafayette, and the second the General's reply, both which we believe are very faithfully versified. It would, undoubtedly,

have been better for the sale of the work, had it appearance been contemporary with the occasion it celebrates. At present, we believe, all the interest connected with the subject, which could give circulation to a work of this kind, independently of its intrinsic merit, is nearly at an end. Lafayette has received his honcurs and rewards, and the citizens of the United States have had their holiday. The good old Frenchman has returned to his native country, and his warm-hearted entertainers to their ordinary occupations. The wreaths woven by fair hands for his brows, are faded and musty, the last Lafayette dinner was digested some months ago, and the last Lafayette speech is in the last year's newspapers. The author of the "Lay of Gratitude" must therefore be contented with finding readers only among those who are "smit with the love of sacred song."

The following stanza is a favorable specimen of the work. The simile in the first quatrain seems to us very beautiful and striking.

Like some proud courser, bearing on the rein,
  And vaulting high, impatient of delay,
The stately ship doth on her moorings strain,
  In haste to bound along the watery way;
But doomed awhile to wait the favouring breeze,
  She towers aloft in stationary pride,
While from her sides recoil the broken seas
  And back like vanquished hosts in battle glide;
While her stern tars the veering clouds explore,
And hear with hope the billows' lessening roar.

The Traveller's Guide, or Pocket Gazetteer of the United States, &c. By JEDIDIAH MORSE and RICHARD C. MORSE. Second Edition; enlarged, revised, and corrected. New Haven. 1826. 18mo. pp. 336.

THE continual and rapid changes taking place in our country, the reclaiming of wildernesses, the building of new cities, the erection of new territories; the laying out of new counties and townships, and the division of old ones; the multitude of recent establishments and institutions of every kind, and all that class of things called by the comprehensive name of internal improvements, render our geographical works imperfect and obsolete within a few years after they are published. Although their value is thus subject to be greatly diminished in a short space of time, they are by no means the less necessary to our citizens; for without their aid, we should be quite in the dark as to many important matters relating to the state of our national prosperity. Thus it happens, that the United States Gazetteers have a sort of histori-

cal value, and each successive work is a kind of survey and record of the growth and extension of our empire. The makers of our geographical books are, we suspect, among the most successful of American authors; and fortunate is he whose work is the last printed, for it is certain, if he has used proper diligence, to be the most perfect, and in the greatest demand. We are glad, in the mean time, to see a second edition of this convenient little work. Some imperfections in the former edition have, we perceive, been supplied, and several important additions made. An Appendix contains the description of some of the principal places in the Canadas; a table of the principal canals in the United States and Canada, with the places they connect, their length, width, depth, lockage, and cost; and tables of the population and tonnage of the United States, &c.

Elegant Extracts, originally compiled by VICESIMUS KNOX. A new edition, prepared by JAMES G. PERCIVAL. In six vols. Vol. I. Prose. Boston. 8vo.

WE are glad to see an American edition of this valuable work, begun by a gentleman so competent to the task, as Mr Percival. The collection, as compiled by Knox, has gone through many editions in England. Some of the extracts, however, have become rather antiquated, and their place may be advantageously supplied by pieces selected from literature of a later date. In an American edition, moreover, we may expect that a respectable place will be assigned to our own writers. In the volume already published, Mr Percival has omitted considerable matter contained in the English edition,—part, as being fitted exclusively for the meridian of England, and part, as not having sufficient merit to deserve insertion. In the first book, consisting of extracts Moral and Religious, those from Gilpin's lectures on points of belief and duty contained in the ordinances of episcopal worship,—Ferguson' Physico-theological Reflections,—Mrs Chapone's observations on different books of the holy scriptures,—a large body of extracts from the Economy of Human Life,—together with some articles of minor importance, are left out, and a few extacts from English and American writers inserted. These omissions appear to us judicious. The subject of Ferguson's Reflections, however, being the constitution of the earth, sea, atmosphere, vegetable creation, &c. is so interesting, that a treatise of similar character, but of more modern date, might have advantageously occupied their place.

The second book, called Classical and Historical, though it might more properly be termed Critical, is much reduced; and very judiciously, as it consisted, in a great measure, of matter

taken from Blair's Rhetoric, now a common text-book in our schools and colleges, from Blackwall's Observations on the Ancient Classics, hardly worthy of admission into a collection of this kind, and from Harris' Philosophical Criticisms, which are not sufficiently fitted to interest the minds of youth, for whom this work is principally intended. We do not observe that any new matter is added to this book, except some extracts from President Adams' Lectures on Oratory, delivered when he was professor at Cambridge. We hope, in the third part, containing Orations, Characters, and Letters, and in the fourth part, consisting of Nartives, Dialogues, and Humorous pieces, which we suppose will compose the next volume, to see more copious exstracts from our native literature. In the poetical department, moreover, the present character of the American muse justifies the expectation that many of her productions will find admission. The typographical execution is very neat, and the engravings of Addison, Ames, and Knox, with which this volume is ornamented, are elegant. The whole work, we understand, is to be printed on stereotype plates from the Boston Type and Stereotype Foundery.

First Annual Report of the Board of Managers of the Prison Discipline Society, Boston. 1826. 8vo. pp. 83.

The Prison Discipline Society was organized in Boston, on the thirtieth of June, 1825, with a view to the improvement of public prisons. This is a subject of great moment, and imposes a weighty responsibility on our State governments, and on all intelligent and influential citizens. The state of prisons, both in England and this country, though much improved since the time of Howard, is still far below the proper standard. The condition of the common county jails is miserably defective. That of the Penitentiaries, though superior, is still very imperfect. To remove the sufferings and corruption, to which the occupants of both these classes of prisons are subjected, from bad management and imperfectly constructed edifices, is the object of this society. The Report presents a valuable body of facts, respecting the character of the prisons and the progress of crime in the different States of the Union, accompanied with judicious remarks on the means of remedying the existing evils. One of the greatest obstacles in the way of improvement, is the imperfect construction of a large proportion of our prisons, which are materially deficient in the important particulars of security, solitary confinement at night, ventilation, light, cleanliness, provision for sickness, and means of inspecting the convicts unobserved. The report

enters into a full description of these defects, and of the bad consequences resulting from them. The progress of crime, though considerable, appears, when compared with that of population in several of the States, not on the whole to have exceeded it. Some of the causes of its increase, says the Report, are to be found in the state of society, and some in the defects of the Penitentiary system. One of them is the degraded character of the coloured population. In Massachusetts, only one seventy-fourth part of the population is coloured, and yet one sixth part of the convicts are of this description. In New-York and Pennsylvania, the proportion is nearly as great. We have reason to suppose, therefore, that if proper means were taken to raise the character of this class, the amount of crime would be greatly diminished. Another cause is the crowded state of the night-rooms in the Penitentiaries. In Massachusetts, from four to sixteen are lodged in one room. In Connecticut, from fifteen to thirty-two. In New-York city, twelve. In Pennsylvania, twenty-nine, thirty, and thirty-one. In New-Jersey, ten or twelve. This crowding diffuses the leaven of villany through the whole mass of the convicts, and qualifies them to pursue their profession with more ability after their release. The want of moral and religious instruction in the Penitentiaries, and the inadequate support of the subordinate officers, laying them open to bribery, and inducing them to connive at criminal practices among the prisoners, are also reasons why they have effected so little in preventing the growth of crime. The last part of the Report contains an account of the excellent system of confinement and discipline in the State prison at Auburn, in the state of New-York. We are highly pleased by the appearance of this pamphlet. It is interesting and valuable, and affords evidence of the attention, that has been given to a subject, which calls most loudly for the labours of the legislator and the philanthropist.

Two Lectures on Classical Literature, being part of a Course delivered at the New York Atheneum in February and March 1826. By RICHARD RAY. New York. 1826. 8vo. pp. 96.

IN the first of these Lectures the author considers the general spirit and tendency of the ancient classics, their interest as monuments of ancient nations, and the elevating influence of the study of them. In the second, the effects which classical learning has produced on the arts, the literature, and modes of thinking, of Europe, are discussed. Mr Ray enters, at considerable length, into the character of grammarians, scholiasts, and commentators, their frivolous word-catching, and the deadening influence of their

verbal quibbling upon the true perception of the beauties of ancient literature. He relates the rapturous reception of the classics, at their introduction into modern Europe, the dominion which they exercised, the servile imitation of their beauties, the substitution of the ancient mythology for the demons and fairies of the popular superstition, the influence of the pure taste which sprung from their study upon the progress of the fine arts, the effect of this same study, as shown in the subsequent reformation of religion, which was owing in a great measure to the knowledge thus diffused, and the spirit of inquiry thus awakened. Mr Ray's ideas upon these topics are good, although they exhibit nothing original or striking. He seems to be a warm admirer of ancient literature, and in our country it is no small merit to have acquired a relish for its beauties, and no little good will be effected by promoting a taste for its study. The principal fault observable in these Lectures, is an overstrained attempt at fine writing, the prevailing sin of American literature. On the whole, however, they are worth reading by those who are desirous of weighing the claims of the classics to the praises which they have received, and to the time and attention demanded for their study.

INTELLIGENCE.

Sir Walter Scott. We are indebted to the politeness of a gentleman at the South for the following extract from a letter, dated last March, written by a literary character of the highest eminence. It contains information, which may be fully depended upon; and which, we believe, will be interesting to all our readers.

"You will be glad to learn, that our admirable friend, Sir Walter Scott's losses by Constable's failure, are not nearly as great, as report represented. In a letter to his friend Mr M——, he says, that, though he has lost a considerable sum, he has enough to live comfortably; he adds, that he must work hard, and that he has 'lost only the trappings of prosperity,' an expression and feeling worthy of him. His character has risen in the opinion of all men by this trial of adversity.

"It has shown, what few men have within their lives been able to prove, that he can bear both extremes of prosperity and adversity with an equal mind. He never excited envy even by his unparalleled success as a writer, and by fortune superior to what genius ever earned before. He was always gracious, kind, full of what he could do for others, never an egotist or selfish in prosperity; and now in the change of fortune, he has the sympathy of all that have any goodness in them. Abbotsford is safe, and he will not be obliged to part with his library; the loss of that would have been dreadful."

Boston Athenæum. The value and usefulness of this excellent institution have within a few months been greatly increased by a union with the Medical Library and the Scientific Association, as well as by a munificent subscription in aid of its funds. "The Medical Library contained more than two thousand well selected modern works, on Medicine, Surgery, and Chemistry, purchased within ten years, at an expense of more than four thousand five hundred dollars." Most of the proprietors have become holders of full shares in the Athenæum, by the payment of an hundred and fifty dollars each, in addition to the junction of their library; so that the property of the Athenæum has been increased more than nine thousand dollars by this union. The Scientific Association had been formed a short time previous, and a subscription obtained of more than thirty-seven hundred dollars, for the purchase of scientific books. This fund will now go to increase the scientific department of the Athenæum. "This department will also be rendered much more complete, by the sum subscribed in February, for completing the Transactions of the Royal Societies and Academies of Sciences in London, Edinburgh, Dublin, Paris, Petersburg, Berlin, Turin, Göttingen, Stockholm, Madrid, Copenhagen, and Lisbon, making, in the whole, one of the most complete scientific libraries in the United States." Besides the amount of property thus added to the institution, Colonel Thomas H. Perkins and James Perkins, Esq. have each subscribed eight thousand dollars, towards the completion of the lecture rooms now erecting, and the increase of the library. Subscriptions, to the amount of over ten thousand dollars more, have been collected from among our citizens, and fifteen new shares, amounting to forty-five hundred dollars, have been sold. So that the total amount of property, added to the institution since January last, is forty-four thousand and five hundred dollars. Of this sum twenty-three thousand and five hundred dollars will be appropriated to the lecture rooms, to the purchase of new books, to repairing the building, and binding the old books. The remainder will constitute a permanent fund, the income of which is to be appropriated to future purchases of books. This income, it is calculated, will be swelled to twenty-eight hundred dollars, by the sums paid for the privilege of taking books from the library; as they will be allowed, in future, to circulate among such of the proprietors and life-share holders as choose annually to pay five dollars. With the above additions to its former means, the Boston Athenæum will become far superior to any institution of the kind in the United States.

Preparation of Quills. M. Scholoz, of Vienna, gives the following process for preparing quills, for making pens, which, it is said, will render them more durable, and better than the best Hamburg quills. A boiler is to be about one fourth part filled with water, and the quills suspended in a perpendicular position over the surface of the water, with their tails downwards, so that the extremity of the tail is not below the surface of the water. The boiler is then to be covered with a close cover, and kept boiling four hours. The next day, after having cleared the quills of roughness, and rubbed them with a piece of woollen cloth, let them be exposed to a moderate degree of heat, and on the following day they will be found hard and transparent, and without the defect of splitting too freely.

The Westminster Review. The last Westminster Review contains an article on the condition of the United States in several important particulars, rather less laudatory than its former remarks on the subject of this country. It attacks our militia system, as unwieldy, expensive, inefficacious, and unequal in its operations; as imposing nominal duties on the rich, and real burdens on the poor. The means provided for its support, says the Review, should not be a poll tax, but a tax on property. Those who have most to lose, should contribute the most towards the defence of the country. Instead of subjecting the whole mass of the able-bodied population to a very imperfect training, and thus depriving the community of a vast amount of profitable labour, a small portion should, every year, be effectively disciplined.

In speaking of our resources, it is incidentally mentioned, that the whole amount of property in Massachusetts has been lately estimated at three hundred millions of dollars; while, forty-five years ago, the property of Maine and Massachusetts united, was but eleven millions.

The reviewer also takes us to task for our boast of universal equality and community of rights, while so large a part of our population is held in slavery, and so many of the free inhabitants excluded by law or custom, on account of their colour, from the rights and privileges enjoyed by the remainder. The writer proposes to do away these distinctions, by removing all the legal disabilities to which the free blacks are subject, and providing for the emancipation of the slaves, at the expense of the general government, who are to purchase them outright, or loan them the sums required to pay for their liberation. There is no lack of schemes for improving our militia system, and removing the evils arising from our coloured population. The only difficulty lies in their execution.

We are charged, moreover, with a servile adherence to a clumsy system of jurisprudence, and with taking our law from the lips of English judges. It is admitted, that Virginia, Pennsylvania, New York, and some of the other states, have revised codes,* and that a disposition for revisal prevails pretty extensively, checked, however, by a fear of the consequences. The great hinderance to thorough revision, and the establishment of good codes, is said to be the fact, that our legislators are mostly lawyers, whose professional pursuits have attached them to the present system. About a hundred and fifty volumes of American Reports are said to have been already printed in the United States, and about twenty more to be yearly added.

In regard to our literature, the reviewer remarks, that there is no want of native talent, but a great want of culture and regulation. Violent exaggeration, he says, is its prevailing characteristic, and renders the study of British models necessary, although their spirit may not be entirely in harmony with our institutions. On the whole, the article, though rather severe, is not abusive, contains much truth, and is both interesting and instructive.

Hindoo Skulls. Mr Patterson, of Calcutta, has examined the skulls of a great many Hindoos, and has ascertained, that the head of that race of men bears to that of a European, the proportion of two to three, or, in other words, that the head of a young European, fifteen years of age, is as large as that of an East Indian of thirty.

* The author probably refers to a revision of the Statutes of these states.

Meridians. It is very desirable, says M. de la Place, that all the nations of Europe, instead of referring their calculations of longitude to the meridian of their principal observatory, should have some common meridian, which nature seems to have pointed out for that purpose. That agreement would introduce into the geography of the world the same uniformity that exists in its almanacs and in its arithmetic, a uniformity, which, extending to the numerous objects of their mutual relations, forms various countries into an immense family. M. de la Place recommends the Peak of Teneriffe or Mont Blanc, as the point through which the common meridian should pass.

Work in the Press. There will shortly be published by E. J. Coale, Baltimore, a translation of a work, which lately appeared in London, written in French, and ascribed to a senator of Russia, who resided several years in this country, as ambassador from that court. Its title is, "Aperçu de la Situation Intérieure des Etats Unis et de leurs Rapports Politiques avec l'Europe, par un Russe."—"A View of the Internal Condition of the United States of America, and of their Political Relations with Europe." It is said to be written with liberality and good sense, and will contain an Appendix, to illustrate the views of the author, and correct the mistakes into which he may have occasionally fallen.

Fossil Bones. A cavern, full of fossil bones, belonging to a great number of species, has been recently found in the neighbourhood of Lunel Vieil, near Montpelier in France. The cavern is in a stratum of limestone, and contains the remains of a multitude of quadrupeds, both carnivorous and herbivorous, several of which have never before been met with in a fossil state; among the latter, the bones of the camel are particularly remarkable. Judging from some of the remains of the lions and tigers found in this collection, the animals to which they belonged must have considerably exceeded in size and force the lions and tigers of the present day. There are other remains of these animals, the proportions of which are similar to those of the present race. With these latter are found mixed the bones of hyenas, panthers, wolves, foxes, and bears; and what is very remarkable, these remains of carnivorous animals are mingled confusedly with an immense quantity of the bones of herbivorous quadrupeds; among which are the hippopotamus, wild boar of immense size, peccaris, horses, camels, several species of the deer and elk kind, sheep, oxen, and even rabbits and rats. The fossil bones discovered in this cavern, are imbedded in an alluvial soil, which contains a great quantity of rounded pebbles; a circumstance that would lead to the supposition, that they had been transported thither by the waters. All the cavern bones contain animal matter; and what is rather singular, the earth, in which they are imbedded, contains still more animal matter than the bones themselves.

Australasia. There are no fewer than three newspapers published in the capital of New South Wales. Fifty years ago, there were not so many published in all Scotland. The files of these journals contain reports of meetings of agricultural societies, of proceedings of courts of law; pastoral charges to the clergy; discussions literary and political; long columns of advertisements, in which rival tradesmen put in their claims to public favour; all the characteristics of an English newspaper here present themselves to us, in a spot in the antipodes, a few years ago inhabited only by naked savages. The farmers of New

South Wales are raising tobacco and making sugar, which promise to be profitable pursuits; but the raising of fine wool appears to be the great object. A rapid improvement is every day taking place in agriculture and horticulture, as well as in road-making, building, &c. The offspring of the colony are said to be distinguished for good morals and quickness of apprehension.

Itinerating Libraries. These valuable institutions for supplying the poor with the means of reading, are increasing in Great Britain. In the county of East Lothian, Scotland, the books are divided into twenty-four divisions, of fifty volumes each. One of these is stationed in a village for two years, and put under the care of any person of good character, who will gratuitously do the duty of librarian. At the end of this period, it is removed to another village, and its place supplied by another division, containing a set of books entirely or almost entirely different. The removes take place at the same time through all the divisions, which revolve, as it were, in a circle, and thus, by a very simple and cheap process, each of the twenty-four villages has a new lot of books every two years.

French Colonies. The population of the French colonies in the West Indies and Guiana amounts to 309,000; viz. Martinique, 10,000 whites, 10,000 free men of colour, and 80,000 slaves; Guadaloupe, 12,500 whites, 6,500 free men, and 101,000 slaves; Bourbon, 15,000 whites, 5,000 free men, and 53,000 slaves; Guiana, 1,000 whites, 1,500 free men, and 13,500 slaves. The exports from these colonies amount to seventy million francs, or over thirteen million dollars, and the imports to sixty-four million francs, or almost twelve million dollars.

New Island. In July last, the Pollux, Dutch ship of war, discovered a new and well peopled island in the Pacific. Its latitude is laid down as seven degrees, ten minutes, south; and its longitude as an hundred and seventy-seven degrees, thirty-three minutes, sixteen seconds, east from Greenwich. The natives were athletic and fierce, great thieves, and, from their showing no symptoms of fear when muskets were discharged, evidently unacquainted with the use of fire-arms.

Agriculture in Russia. The Agricultural Society of Moscow, over which Prince Galitzin presides, and to which, the late emperor Alexander gave a considerable grant of land near Moscow, for the purpose of establishing a farm, is going on very prosperously. It has, already collected in its school above eighty pupils, from various parts of Russia, even from Kamschatka, and the journal of its proceedings has been so much in demand, that it has been found necessary to reprint the volumes for the first two years.

Voyage of Discovery. The English government are about to fit out an expedition for exploring the coast of South America, from the Rio de la Plata to Cape Horn, and to open an intercourse with the natives of the vast peninsula, of whom so little is known. This expedition is intended to occupy five years. It is strange that while so much effort has been directed towards the North Pole, hardly any attempt has been made to explore the unknown regions of the South since the time of Cook. Yet the geography of the latter regions is miserably deficient, and there is another great inducement for a commercial country to become acquainted with them, viz. the abundance of furs, oils, and other articles of trade, which they furnish.

Quarterly List of New Publications. The list of new publications contained in the numbers of the United States Literary Gazette, from April 1st to June 15th, both included, amounts to two hundred and fifty-one volumes, and may be thus distributed: Arts and Sciences, four; Biography, four; The Drama, three; History, five; Law, twelve; Medicine, seven; Miscellaneous, forty-five; Poetry, five; Political Economy, one; Theology, fifty-one; Education, twenty-seven; Politics, four; Voyages, one; Agriculture, three; Geography, three; Topography, one; Transactions of Philosophical Societies, one; Foreign Works reprinted, sixty-two.

Yellow Fever. By a calculation of the effects which the yellow fever at various periods has produced at Charleston, S. C., it appears that it is not equally fatal to all classes of the inhabitants. The deaths of the blacks (who form a third part of the population) have been only at the rate of a half per cent.; while the French have lost at the rate of one; the Germans, one and a half; the Dutch, two; the Americans, three; and the English, four per cent. Generally speaking, persons of a sanguine temperament have been most in danger, for the mortality among them has amounted to a tenth, while among a bilious people, it has been only a fiftieth. Females have suffered much less than males.

Suicides in England. The number of suicides committed in Westminster, a part of London, containing, in 1821, one hundred and eighty-one thousand inhabitants, from the year 1812 to the year 1824, both included, was two hundred and ninety, of which two hundred and seven were committed by men, and eighty-three by women. In all these cases, except five, verdicts of insanity were returned. During the eight last years of this period, the average number of suicides per annum was less by almost six than in the previous years.

Silk Manufacture. A new process for winding and spinning the silk, directly, at one operation, from the cocoons of the silk-worm, has been invented by M. Bonnard, and the machines he has had constructed for this purpose enable him to procure silk of the greatest degree of fineness. This new mode of spinning is adapted to spin from cold, warm, or hot water. The principles of the method seem to consist in the precision and regularity of the motion of the machines, and the arrangement for preventing the silk being wound on the same place too frequently. In M. Bonnard's machine, one hundred and ninety revolutions take place before the thread is again laid over that previously wound upon the same place.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHY.

Juvenile Piety and Intelligence, illustrated in the Life and Death of Margaret Ann Walton, daughter of the Rev. W. C. Walton, of Bethany, Virginia. Philadelphia.

Memoirs of the Rev. Thomas Baldwin, D. D. late Pastor of the Second Baptist Church in Boston, who died at Waterville, Maine, August 29, 1825. Together with a Funeral Sermon, occasioned by his Death, by the Rev. Daniel Chessman, Hallowell, Maine. Boston.

DRAMA.

The Acting American Theatre. No. II. Containing the Comedy of "Much Ado about Nothing." With a Portrait of Miss Kelly, in the character of Beatrice.

The Acting American Theatre. No. III. Containing the Tragedy of "Superstition." With a finely engraved Portrait of Mrs Duff, in the character of Mary.

EDUCATION.

A Manual of Chemistry, on the basis of Professor Brande's, containing the principal Facts of the Science, arranged in the Order in which they are discussed and illustrated in the Lectures at Harvard University, New England. Compiled from the works of Brande, Henry, Berzelius, and others. By John W. Webster, M. D. Boston. 8vo. pp. 603.

A Manual of Mineralogy and Geology, designed for the Use of Schools, &c. By Ebenezer Emmons, M. D. Adopted as a Text Book in the Rensselaer School, Albany.

The Second Book, or Reading Lessons for Primary Schools. Boston. 18mo. pp. 142.

A Just Standard for Pronouncing the English Language. By Lyman Cobb. Revised Edition. Ithaca, N. Y. 12mo. pp. 168.

Juvenile Philosopher; or, Youth's Manual of Philosophy. In Four Parts. Second revised Edition. Geneva, N. Y. 18mo. pp. 372.

The American Instructer. Second Book. Designed for the Common Schools in America. By Hall J. Kelly, A. M. Second Edition. Boston. 12mo. pp. 168.

Geography; or, a Description of the World. In three Parts. Accompanied with an Atlas. To which is added, an easy Method of Constructing Maps, illustrated by Plates, for the Use of Schools and Academies. By Daniel Adams, A. M. Ninth Edition. Boston. 12mo. pp. 323.

Conversations on Natural Philosophy, in which the Elements of that Science are familiarly explained. Illustrated with Plates. By the Author of Conversations on Chemistry, &c. With Corrections and Improvements, appropriate Questions, and a Glossary, by Dr Thomas P. Jones.

Deutches Lesebuch für Anfänger. Cambridge, N. E. 12mo. pp. 252.

The Latin Reader. From the Fifth German Edition. By Frederic Jacobs. Second American Edition. Boston. 12mo. pp. 166.

Publius Virgilius Maro. Bucolica, Georgica, et Æneis. Accedunt Clavis-Metrica, Notulæ Anglicæ, et Quæstiones, nec non Index Vocabulorum Uberrima. Cura B. A. Gould. In Usum Scholæ Bostoniensis. Bostoniæ. 8vo. pp. 809.

GEOGRAPHY.

An Atlas of Ancient Geography, comprised in Sixteen Maps, selected from the most approved Works, to elucidate the Writings of the Ancient Authors, both Sacred and Profane. Philadelphia.

A Pocket Map of the Environs of Philadelphia, drawn on a Scale of Two Miles to an Inch, intended as a Guide to the various Towns, &c. within Fifteen Miles of the City. Philadelphia.

LAW.

The Opinion of the Circuit Court of the United States, Eastern District, of Virginia, pronounced by Marshall, Chief Justice, in the celebrated case of Garnett, Ex. of Brooke, v. Macon. Richmond.

The American Pleader, or Lawyer's Guide. By William Waller Henning, Counsellor at Law. Vol. II. Price $6, calf. Richmond.

The Last Session Laws of the State of New York, 1826. New York.

The Rules of the Court of Common Pleas, revised by order of Judge Irving. New York.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A Letter to the Hon. Isaac Parker, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the State of Massachusetts, containing Remarks on the Dislocation of the Hip Joint, occasioned by the Publication of a Trial which took place at Machias, in the State of Maine, June, 1824. By John C. Warren, M. D. Professor of Anatomy and Surgery in Harvard University, and Acting Surgeon in the Massachusetts General Hospital. With an Appendix of Documents from the Trial necessary to illustrate the History of the Case. Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 142.

The Importance of the Sciences of Anatomy and Physiology as a Branch of General Education; being an Introduction to a Course of Lectures to the Upper Classes in Brown University. By Usher Parsons, M. D. Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 32.

The Boston Handel and Haydn Society Collection of Church Music; being a selection of the most approved Psalm and Hymn Tunes; together with many beautiful Extracts from the works of Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, and other eminent Modern Composers. Fourth Edition, with Additions and Improvements. Boston. pp. 357.

An Oration, delivered before the Cheraw Literary Society, on the 22d of February, 1826; being the Day appointed as the Anniversary of the Society. By James F. Canover. Cheraw. 8vo. pp. 23.

The Question of Retrocession Stated. Price 25 cents. Georgetown, D. C.

An Address, delivered at the Opening of the Twelfth Exhibition of the American Academy of Fine Arts. By M. Charles Paterson. New York. 1826.

An Oration, on the Importance of Scientific Knowledge, delivered before the Providence Association of Mechanics and Manufacture at their Forty-seventh Anniversary, April 10, 1826. Providence.

Pierre and his Family; a Story of the Waldenses. A new Edition. Philadelphia.

Rural Rambles. Boston. 18mo. pp. 72.

A Defence of the Drama; containing Mansel's Free Thoughts, Extracts from the most celebrated Writers, and a Discourse on the Lawfulness and Unlawfulness of Plays. By the celebrated Father Caffaro, Divinity Professor at Paris. Albany, N. Y.

The Canal Acts, with the last Amendments, and new Regulations and Rates of Toll. Also, the Road Acts, with important Amendments.

Songs of Zion; being a Collection of Hymns for the Use of the Pious of all Denominations. By M. Springer, Jr. Hallowell. 18mo. pp. 192.

First Annual Report of the Board of Managers of the Prison Discipline Society, Boston, June 2, 1826. Boston. 8vo. pp. 88.

The Moral Characters of Theophrastus, in the Græca Majora, literally translated into English. To which are subjoined, Explanatory and Philological Notes, for the Use of Students. Andover. 8vo. pp. 36.

Constitution of the American Home Missionary Society, recommended by a Convention of the Friends of Missions, held in the City of New York, May 10, 1826, and adopted by the United Domestic Missionary Society; together with the Fourth Report of the last named Society. With an Appendix. New York. 8vo. pp. 44.

The Student's Walk; or a Sabbath in the Country. By the Author of "Lilly Douglas." Boston. 18mo. pp. 108.

First Annual Report of the American Tract Society, instituted at New York, 1825. With Lists of Auxiliaries and Benefactors, Addresses at the Anniversary, &c. New York. 8vo. pp. 48.

Reflections on the subject of Emigration from Europe with a View to Settlement in the United States; containing Brief Sketches of the Moral and Political Character of this Country. Philadelphia. 8vo. pp. 24.

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POLITICS.

The Federalist, on the new Constitution, written in the year 1788, by Mr Hamilton, Mr Madison, and Mr Jay. With an Appendix, containing the Letters of Pacificus and Helvidius, on the Proclamation of Neutrality, 1793; also, the original Articles of Confederation, and the Constitution of the United States, with the Amendments thereto. A new Edition. The numbers written by Mr Madison are corrected by himself. Hallowell, Me. 8vo. pp. 582.

Notes on Political Economy. By J. N. Cardozo. Charleston. 8vo. pp. 125.

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THE UNITED STATES

LITERARY GAZETTE.

VOL. IV. AUGUST, 1826. Nos. 9 & 10.

REVIEWS.

Six Months in the West Indies in 1825. New York. 1826. 12mo. pp. 294.

THIS book is written in a lively and amusing manner; but with rather too fixed a determination in the author, to be witty at all times. Its morality and its style are both loose, and the predominant tastes displayed are those of a *bon vivant*. It embraces the government side of the question, in regard to British colonial policy, and represents the slaves as well treated and contented. Some of the descriptions may be interesting to our readers. The following is the author's account of his arrival at Barbadoes, in company with an English bishop, who had gone out to minister in the West Indies.

I was present when the first protestant bishop arrived in the bay, and the landing was a spectacle which I shall not easily forget. The ships of war were dressed and their yards manned, and salutes fired; this was pretty and common; but such a sight as the Carenage presented very few have ever witnessed. On the quay, on the mole, on boats, on posts, on house tops, through doors and windows, wherever a human foot could stand, was one appalling mass of black faces. As the barge passed slowly along, the emotions of the multitude were absolutely tremendous; they threw up their arms and waved their handkerchiefs, they danced, and jumped, and rolled on the ground, they sung and screamed and shouted and roared, till the whole surface of the place seemed to be one huge grin of delight. Then they broke out into a thousand wild exclamations of joy and passionate congratulations, uttered

with such vehemence, that, new as it was then to me, it made me tremble; till I was somewhat restored by a chorus of negro girls,—"De Bissop is come; de Bissop is come! He is coming to marry us, coming to marry us, coming to marry us all!"

In regard to education in the islands, our author observes;

A great desideratum in the West Indies is a place of study and retirement for young men. As it is, those who cannot afford the heavy expense of going to Oxford or Cambridge, are obliged to break off the unfinished work of instruction, to set up at seventeen or eighteen for men, and undertake the charge of duties for which they are utterly unqualified. They come away from school half educated in heart and intellect, and are then for the most part placed in situations, where every temptation to licentiousness besets their path, and many dangerous privileges are of necessity committed to their discretionary exercise. With regard to the wants of the church, the deficiency is still more severely felt; the present plan of general improvement demands such a number of well informed youths as catechists or clergymen, as the islands under the actual system of things cannot supply; hence the necessity of bringing men from England, who are of course wholly unacquainted with the peculiar condition of the society in the midst of which they are to labour, or of employing in very difficult enterprises persons who at the best perhaps have nothing but their good intentions to recommend them. If the interval between seventeen and twenty-three is hazardous in this country, what must it be in the West Indies, where there exists no retreat from the seductions of awakening passion, no scope or aid for the developement of the higher and more latent powers of the human mind.

The following is a description of some remarkable features in West Indian vegetation, and of the nest of the corn-bird.

After breakfast we rode through the yet half-cultivated country in our way to the Indian Mission at Savana Grande. Nothing can be more wretched than the appearance of the land in the first process of clearing; fire is the principal agent, and the surface of the earth is obstructed with trunks and branches of trees black and ghastly with the conflagration. I am told that these trees are usually left to rot away, as the expense of drawing them off would be too heavy, besides that the soil is much enriched by the immense deposition of vegetable matter. But the still standing woods are magnificent. The most striking feature in their vegetation is the parasite race of plants... their variety, magnitude, and colours are astonishing. It is often difficult to distinguish the standard tree from the luxuriant weeds which interlace and enmesh its branches with their tendrils in an indissoluble union. Many of

these bear the most gorgeous flowers upon their bosoms of unfading green; the wild pine burns in the sun like a topaz rising out of a calix of emerald. From the topmost limbs of the giant fathers of the forest, such as the silk-cotton tree, bois Le Seur,* and various kinds of friguera, you see the creeper, like a cord, hanging down one hundred and fifty feet, another grows down parallel with the first, the wind twists them together into bell-ropes, as Ligon well puts it; others are successively united in this way, till at length the creeper, now a stout sapling, fixes itself in the ground, takes root, and like a graceful pillar supports the mighty architrave above. Fresh creepers again form a tracery round these and around the parent tree, and swell by accretion to such an enormous size, that they put me in mind of the huge and endless folds of the strangling serpents of the Laocoon.

But nothing pleased me so much as the corn-bird's nest.† This bird, in order to lay her eggs in safety, and defeat those ingenious hidalgos the monkeys, weaves a kind of purse net, such as we see used in petty shops to contain balls of twine and other light articles. This she suspends by a twisted cord of creepers from the outermost limb of many of the great trees; at the bottom of the purse, which is the broadest part, lies the nest, and there she swings away backwards and forwards before the breeze in the prettiest manner imaginable. I believe she gets in at the bottom, but the extreme height prevented me from seeing the aperture. If a man were disposed to be fanciful, he would say that the Indians borrowed their chinchorro or hammock from the corn-bird's nest, though the bird has the advantage a thousand times over in airiness and motion.

Our readers will be amused with the account of a party of negroes, who had assembled to be baptized and married by the newly arrived bishop.

According to appointment, at nine the next morning, Mr Mitchell's house was surrounded by a noisy multitude of men, women, and children. Some came to be baptized, some to gossip, and some to be married. Many of the latter brought in their arms smiling arguments that the prayers of the church for fecundity would be superfluous. They all entered the house with perfect nonchalance, roamed about in every part of it, and laughed and gabbled in as unrestrained a manner as they would have done in their own huts. Mrs Mitchell's parlour, where I had slept, was constituted baptistery and altar. A white cloth was spread on the table, and a large glass vase, filled with pure water, was placed in

* "I do not pretend to spell this word correctly. I only caught it in conversation, and believe it is some man's name."

† The oriole or sylvia penailis of Buffon, I believe.

the middle. After about a quarter of an hour's arduous exertions on the part of the governor and commandant, these light-hearted creatures were reduced to as low a degree of noise, as their natures would admit. The bishop then read the first part of the service, the whole party kneeling on the floor; but when the rite of aspersion came to be performed, there had like to have been a riot from the mothers jockeying for the honour of first baptism at the bishop's hand. The two chaplains ministered till they streamed, and never did I hear such incessant squalling and screaming as arose from the regenerated piccaninnies. I think seventy were baptized and registered, which was the most laborious part of all. We had some difficulty in collecting them for the conclusion of the service, but upon the whole the adult negroes behaved exceedingly well, and displayed every appearance of unfeigned devotion.

And then came Hymen! Bless thine eyes, sweet divinity, how I love thee! Thou that camest so easily to those poor votaries, when wilt thou come to me? When wilt thou with a spark from thy golden torch set fire to political economy, and reduce to ashes the relation which sexagenarians have created between population and the means of subsistence.

About a dozen couples were agreed, but seven or eight more were influenced by the sweet contagion, and struck up a marriage on the spot, as we see done at the ends of the old comedies. One woman, I remember, turned sulky and would not come to the scratch, but Chesapeak her lover was not to be so done; "Now you savey, Moll," said he, "me no tand your shim shams; me come to be married, and me *will* be married; you come beg me when I got another;" still Moll coquetted it; Chesapeak went out, staid five minutes, and, as I am a Christian man, brought in a much prettier girl under his arm, and was married to her forthwith. I suppose Chesapeak had his reputation. I have known cases in England, where something of this sort of manly conduct would have had a very salutary effect. Now a grand difficulty arose from there being no rings; those in the women's ears being too large by half. Hereupon I took,—not thy hair, my Eugenia! oh, no,—but a gold hoop which my good father bought for me from a wandering Jew; this I proffered for the service of the sable bridegrooms, and I now wear it as a sort of charm as close as possible to Eugenia's hair. It noosed thirteen couples. I gave away most of the brides; one of them, a pretty French girl of the Romish faith, behaved very ill; she giggled so much that the clergyman threatened to desist from the ceremony, and her mate, a quiet and devout protestant, was very angry with her. When she was kneeling after the blessing, I heard her say to her husband,—"Dit-on, Jean! hooka drole manière de se marier! hè! hè! hè!" I 'll warrant she leads her spouse a decent life of it.

Our author thus describes the appearance of the fire-flies of St Lucia in an evening.

As I gazed, the air burst into atoms of green fire before my face, and in an instant they were gone; I turned round, and saw all the woods upon the mountains illuminated with ten thousands of flaming torches moving in every direction, now rising, now falling, vanishing here, reappearing there, converging to a globe, and dispersing in spangles. No man can conceive from dry description alone the magical beauty of these glorious creatures; so far from their effects having been exaggerated by travellers, I can say that I never read an account in prose or verse which in the least prepared me for the reality.

There are two sorts, the small fly which flits *in and out* in the air, the body of which I have never examined; and a kind of beetle, which keeps more to the woods, and is somewhat more stationary, like our glow-worm. This last has two broad eyes on the back of its head, which, when the phosphorescent energy is not exerted, are of a dull parchment hue, but, upon the animal's being touched, shoot forth two streams of green light as intense as the purest gas. But the chief source of splendour is a cleft in the belly, through which the whole interior of the beetle appears like a red hot furnace. I put one of these natural lamps under a wine glass in my bed-room in Trinidad, and, in order to verify some accounts, which I have heard doubted, I ascertained the hour on my watch by its light alone with the utmost facility.

The condition of the slaves in the West Indies is spoken of in the following terms.

People will differ in their estimates of the degree of comfort enjoyed by the adult slaves, but Mr Buxton himself could not doubt the happiness of the children. In the changeable climate of Britain, where infants must be wrapped up in frocks and mantles and caps and shoes, we have no notion of the vigorous precocity of life which is so common in the West Indies; there the punchy little Indian Bacchus stands up like a man in twelve months, and, instead of the unmindful vacancy of our babies, stares at you with the good impudent assurance which Raffael puts in the eyes of his Child. They dance together in rings amidst their fathers and mothers who may be working the farm court, and throw trash at each other, as Eton boys do chestnuts or snow-balls. One naked urchin ran full butt behind me, thrust his curly pate through my legs, and looked up in my face with irresistible impertinence. I believe I should have licked the scoundrel if he had pushed me into the pond, which he was near doing. Jerryjorimbo, a particular ally of mine, must needs climb up my back in order to pat

my cheeks, and as to not shaking hands with every soul of them all, it would have been such a piece of tyranny as would have destroyed my sleep. Accordingly there was a satisfactory communication of sweat between me and some dozens of His Majesty's subjects and Mr Jordan's slaves. The nursery is a capital sight. It is a large open room with the floor covered with wooden trays, and in each tray a naked niggerling. There they are, from the atom born to-day, up to eight or nine months of age, from the small black pudding up to a respectable sucking pig. Such screaming, mewling, and grinning! The venerable nurse sits placidly in the middle, and administers pap to the young gentlemen when they seem to squall from hunger. They stuff children and turkies in the same way, by placing the victim on its back in their lap, inserting a lump of the food in the mouth, and then seeing it well down with the thumb and fore-finger. The negro women will do this to excess, and there is no convincing them of the evil consequences, though, it is notorious, that this inordinate repletion is a common cause of death amongst the young in the colonies.

In Barbados the slaves have no provision grounds properly so called; these form a part of the estate, and they labour upon them as on the rest of the plantation. But they have all gardens of their own which they may cultivate as they please, and a dressed meal is always provided for them in the middle of the day, which is exclusive of their daily allowance from the store of the master. That they have time to cultivate their patches of land is clear from the fact that they always are cultivated; either yams, Indian corn, plantains, or even canes, are to be seen growing round every hut. The hut is a cottage thatched with palm-branches, and divided into two rooms; one is the chamber of the parents, the other the common hall, with a table, chairs, and a broad bench with back to it for the children to sleep on at night. Some huts are larger and smarter than this. Jack something or other, the driver on the Society's estate, has two large four post beds, looking-glasses, and framed pictures. Jack is a good-natured fellow, offered me some wine, and hath begotten twelve children or more. * * *

That there are degrees in slavery is true; the different education and more different tempers of their masters will operate in various ways upon the condition of the slaves, and between the highest and the lowest stage there will be often a greater space than between freedom and some states of slavery itself. The well-dressed lady's maid or gentleman's butler and groom seem scarcely beneath the same classes of people in England; they receive no wages, indeed, and cannot leave their service; but it must be recollected that they enjoy under their master's protection almost every thing which they could buy with money, and that their *country* is so small, and society so uniform in it, that the wish to see the un-

known world and to try other services, which would render such a restriction tormenting in England or France, can affect their contentment in a very slight degree. The other extreme of servitude comprises the slaves belonging to the petty land proprietors, and the white and coloured tradesmen, mechanics, and keepers of hotels in the towns. The *servi servorum*, the slaves of slaves, occur so rarely as not to be worth taking into the account, except for the purpose of instancing a curious right of slavery, and of reprobating its allowance. I am far from meaning to condemn all these classes of masters by wholesale; it often happens, I am told, that they are even too indulgent, and admit their slaves to a familiarity which can do no good to either party; but I am bound to say that the only cases of cruelty, which I either met with or heard of in the West Indies, were one and all perpetrated by persons of this description. As the owners live worse, the slaves must of necessity live worse also; as their owners are less enlightened, less affected by public opinion, nay, oftentimes as barbarous or even more so than themselves, they the slaves must of course profit less under the instruction, and be more completely at the mercy of the passions of such their masters.

These are the two extremes; the average condition is that of the labourers in the field upon respectable estates. These constitute seven or eight tenths of the whole slave population. In point of ease and shade their life is much inferior to that of the planter's domestic; in food, care in sickness, instruction, and regular protection, they are incomparably better off than the wretched thralls of the low inhabitants of the towns. The positive amount of their rights and privileges is, as I have occasionally remarked, various in various islands; in none is it greater, in few so great as in Barbados. There are many things in the slave management of that colony, which might be advantageously imitated by the planters of other islands; but at the same time this is a matter which depends so much upon local circumstances that it would be presumptuous in any one to condemn, upon general principles alone, those who do not avail themselves of the example.

These extracts seem to show that the condition of the slaves is less wretched than is generally imagined. That of the free people of colour, in some of the islands at least, seems to be tolerable. Speaking of St Christopher's, our author observes;

I believe I have reason to say that there is no colony, with perhaps the exception of Grenada, where the free coloured people are treated with so much justice as in St Kitt's. There are instances here of respectable white and coloured persons intermarrying, which is a conquest over the last and most natural of all prejudices. The only newspaper in the island is conducted by a

coloured man, and what is more, as well conducted as any other in the West Indies. Their oaths as witnesses they have long possessed. I believe, but I am not certain, that they vote indiscriminately with the whites in the election of members for the General Assembly. I received the sacrament myself after a black woman, and the odious custom of burying them and the slaves in a detached piece of ground is not common, and where it did exist a little while ago I believe it has been since abolished at the earnest instances of the worthy bishop.

In regard to Antigua, also, it is said;

In Antigua they are upon the whole fairly treated, though there are still many things which should be granted to them, if not for conscience' sake, yet because it is useless to withhold them. There is considerable personal property possessed by this class, and the only or the principal newspaper of the island is conducted by a coloured man; a circumstance which a Barbadian would think imported a tolerable share of liberality in the white community.

The concluding observation, respecting Barbadoes, shows that this liberal treatment is not universal.

The character of the aboriginal inhabitants of the islands, a large number of whom our author saw in Trinidad, is thus drawn;

They seem to be the identical race of people whose forefathers Columbus discovered, and the Spaniards worked to death in Hispaniola. They are short in stature (none that I saw exceeding five feet and six inches), yellow in complexion, their eyes dark, their hair long, lank, and glossy as a raven's wing; they have a remarkable space between the nostrils and the upper lip, and a breadth and massiveness between the shoulders that would do credit to the Farnese Hercules. Their hands and feet are small-boned and delicately shaped. Nothing seems to affect them like other men; neither joy nor sorrow, anger or curiosity, take any hold of them. Both mind and body are drenched in the deepest apathy; the children lie quietly on their mother's bosoms; silence is in their dwellings, and idlesse in all their ways.

In the following sketch, their character is compared with that of the negroes.

The amazing contrast between these Indians and the negroes powerfully arrested my attention. Their complexions do not differ so much as their minds and dispositions. In the first, life stagnates; in the last, it is tremulous with irritability. The negroes cannot be silent; they talk in spite of themselves. Every passion

acts upon them with strange intensity; their anger is sudden and furious, their mirth clamorous and excessive, their curiosity audacious, and their love the sheer demand for gratification of an ardent animal desire. Yet by their nature they are good-humoured in the highest degree, and I know nothing more delightful than to be met by a group of negro girls, and be saluted with their kind "How d'ye, massa? how d'ye, massa?" their sparkling eyes and bunches of white teeth. It is said that even the slaves despise the Indians, and I think it very probable; they are decidedly inferior as intelligent beings. Indeed their history and existence form a deep subject for speculation. The flexibility of temper of the rest of mankind has been for the most part denied to them; they wither under transportation, they die under labour; they will never willingly or generally amalgamate with the races of Europe or Africa; if left to themselves, with ample means of subsistence, they decrease in numbers every year; if compelled to any kind of improvement, they reluctantly acquiesce, and relapse with certainty the moment the external compulsion ceases. They shrink before the approach of other nations as it were by instinct; they are now not known in vast countries of which they were once the only inhabitants; and it should almost seem that they have been destined by a mysterious Providence to people a third part of the globe, till in the appointed time the New World should be laid open to the Old, and the ceaseless and irresistible stream of population from the East should reach them, and insensibly sweep them from off the face of the earth.

The condition of the jails in the West Indies may be judged of from the following description of that of Antigua.

The jail is like most others in the West Indies, that is to say, as bad in every way as possible. The windows of some of the rooms look into the street, and through those on the ground floor any communication, either of rum or talk, may go on at all times. The court is a mere swamp of mud and water with pigs wallowing about in it, and the whole scene is wretched beyond description. They adopt here also the practice of turning out gangs of prisoners to walk in the streets with a chain about their legs. It is really amazing that in a colony so enlightened as Antigua, where their other public institutions are conducted in a very exemplary manner, such a gross nuisance should be permitted to remain under the eyes of the legislature.

But little is said on the subject of religion. A large portion of the negroes in the English islands are methodists; and, from the system of classes and confessions which prevails among this sect, our author apprehends consequences dangerous to the tran-

quillity of the colonies. The different views of the French and English settlers, and the consequent effects upon the condition of the different islands are thus described;

The French colonists, whether Creoles or Europeans, consider the West Indies as their country; they cast no wistful looks towards France; they have not even a pacquet of their own; they marry, educate, and build in and for the West Indies, and the West Indies alone. In our colonies it is quite different; except a few regular Creoles, to whom gratis rum and gratis coloured mothers for their children have become quite indispensable, every one regards the colony as a temporary lodging-place, where they must sojourn in sugar and molasses till their mortgages will let them live elsewhere. They call England their home, though many of them have never been there; they talk of writing home and going home, and pique themselves more on knowing the probable result of a contested election in England, than on mending their roads, establishing a police, or purifying a prison. The French colonist deliberately expatriates himself; the Englishman never. If our colonies were to throw themselves into the hands of the North Americans, as their enemies say that some of them wish to do, the planters would make their little triennial trips to New York as they now do to London. The consequence of this feeling is, that every one, that can do so, maintains some correspondence with England, and when any article is wanted, he sends to England for it. Hence, except in the case of chemical drugs, there is an inconsiderable market for an imported store of miscellaneous goods, much less for an assortment of articles of the same kind. A different feeling in Martinique produces an opposite effect; in that island very little individual correspondence exists with France, and consequently there is that effectual demand for books, wines, jewellery, haberdashery, &c. in the colony itself, which enables labour to be divided almost as far as in the mother country. In St Pierre there are many shops which contain nothing but bonnets, ribbons, and silks, others nothing but trinkets and toys, others hats only, and so on, and there are rich tradesmen in St Pierre on this account. Bridge Town would rapidly become a wealthy place, if another system were adopted; for not only would the public convenience be much promoted by a steady, safe, and abundant importation, and separate preservation of each article in common request, but the demand for those articles would be one hundred fold greater in Bridge Town itself than it now is on the same account in London, Liverpool, or Bristol, when impeded and divided and frittered away by a system of parcel-sending across the Atlantic. Supply will, under particular circumstances, create demand. If a post were established in Barbados, or a steam-

boat started between the islands, a thousand letters would be written where there are one hundred now, and a hundred persons would interchange visits where ten hardly do at present. I want a book and cannot borrow it; I would purchase it instantly from a bookseller in my neighbourhood, but I may not think it worth my while to send for it over the ocean, when, with every risk, I must wait at the least three months for it. The moral consequences of this system are even more to be lamented than the economical, but I will say more about that at some other time.

On the whole, these sketches, though disfigured with considerable looseness of language, thought, and principle, with particular descriptions of West Indian cookery, and with classical quotations which have no peculiar point, are instructive and amusing.

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1. *An Address, delivered before the Massachusetts Society for the Suppression of Intemperance, at their Annual Meeting, May*, 1825. By John Ware, M. D. Boston. 1826. 12mo. pp. 23.
2. *An Address, delivered before the Massachusetts Society for the Suppression of Intemperance, June*, 1826. By Gamaliel Bradford, M. D. Boston. 12mo. pp. 24.

It is not indifference to the benevolent and patriotic efforts of this, and of similar societies, that has prevented our earlier notice of them, and of the subject to which they relate. Nor have we ever deemed this, or any kindred enterprise, unappropriate to our pages. We take occasion, therefore, from the publication, almost simultaneously, of these sensible and well written pamphlets, to atone, however imperfectly, for our past silence on an interesting and important topic, and to state, with little regard to niceness of phraseology, some of the leading thoughts which occur to us respecting it.

It is a thankless office, we well know, to search out and expose the disorders, sins, and dangers of the community to which we belong. The exposure of evil generally subjects men to the imputation of a cynical temper; their motives are impeached, and their measures, if they adopt any, are reproached and condemned. Or, if their intentions are spared, their imaginations, at least, are represented as distempered. Amidst the light and splendours of a prosperous era, it is foolishly supposed, that evils

are discerned, like spots on the sun, only through some darkened medium. It is not so. We "pity," as much as could the curate of Coxwold, "the man who can travel from Dan to Beersheba, and cry, 't is all barren." Equally pitiable is his temper, who, in surveying the moral condition of a country like ours, perceives nothing but depravity and vice, and anticipates nothing but decrepitude and ruin.

The painter, who sketches a single view, may be excused for confining his eye to the narrow limits which his canvass is intended to exhibit; but what should we say of his soul or even of his genius, were he to return from the south of Europe, impressed only by the frightfully impending cliffs of the Alps, the eternal frost of their summits, or the gloom of the shades in the vallies at their base? Far from us be that morbid, boding spirit, which never bounds at the view of the moral youth and energy of our country, and never exults in the anticipation of her ripened virtue and glory. Such a spirit, however, it is useless to deprecate or to disavow. The danger lies in the other extreme. The state of our community is so happy, its prospects so brilliant, that it is difficult to cherish in ourselves, or to excite in others, the vigilance and precaution which alone will preserve and augment our felicity. But when mischiefs are presented, not to the imagination, but to the senses; mischiefs, not in their scattered elements, but in their settled combination; not in their straggling, incipent movements, but in their organized discipline; not skirmishing on the frontiers, but boldly advancing to the heart of the empire; the patriot must awake from his lethargy and his reveries; must turn from complacent musings upon his country's strength and happiness; must sound the alarm, and invoke his countrymen to unite in defence and resistance. Such a mischief exists among us. It rages among our citizens in peace, and our soldiers in war. It is wasting property, health, and life; imposing burdens on the rich, and ruining the poor; impairing public virtue, and destroying domestic peace; not only diminishing the enjoyments of this life, but blighting the hopes of the next.

While, therefore, we do not affect to preach, and would eschew any approximation to canting or whining, our readers will pardon us for addressing them as patriots, and calling their attention to some of the political evils which are the effect of that unexampled use of spirituous liquors, for which this country is disgracefully preeminent.

The strength of every political community depends upon its numbers, resources, and virtue. There is doubtless a limit, be-

yond which an increase of numbers weakens society. This limit, however, is to be ascertained not merely by numerical calculation, but by the means which a country possesses for supporting its population. It is unnecessary to advert to the maxims of political economists, on this subject; for no part of our country has arrived at that stage, in which a diminution of numbers is necessary to political health. Even in this ancient Commonwealth, we have but one hundredth part of the population which proficients in statistics assert that the soil is capable of sustaining. Besides, our rapid increase proves that our numbers are not yet redundant; no truth being more manifest than that men will not continue to multiply greatly beyond the means of support. It is certain, then, that any thing which diminishes our numbers, or retards their increase, is an evil. Especially will he so consider it, who takes an enlarged view of our political relations, and looks forward to the destiny which seems to be allotted to the American nation. The loss of six thousand inhabitants annually, will, within the life of man, retard the increase of population in the United States to a degree which no one will believe, until he has made the computation.* But to six thousand, at least, is the list of deaths annually swelled by the ravages of intemperate drinking. The bills of mortality which are presented to our inspection, so far as the causes of death are stated, give the frightful intelligence, that one thirty-fifth part of those who go down to death, are prematurely hurried off by drunkenness. Melancholy facts under our own eyes, make these statements perfectly credible. Why, then, is so little emotion or inquiry excited? What anxiety, apprehension, and alarm are produced by a fatal epidemical disease! The hand of benevolence, the skill and vigilance of the faculty, and the arm of the magistrate are exerted to mitigate, to remedy, to prevent. But while the pestilence slays its thousands, intemperance destroys its ten thousands. This mighty architect of ruins has reared more monuments in the valley of death, than all the judgments with which affronted Heaven has chastised our country. Yet benevolence has been torpid, and the laws have slept.

Let some wasting and stubborn disease attack a little village, and for a few short weeks the daily knell summons to a neigh-

* We do not adopt the notion of Mr M'Culloch,—the standing, flippant witness before committees of the British parliament,—who pronounces political economy to be "the most exact of moral sciences," and who, last year, asserted, that "pestilence never permanently retarded the increase of population in any country;" and who stated, to a shilling, the additional capital necessary to prevent the increase of population in Ireland from becoming a national curse!

bour's obsequies; dejection and awe seize upon the mind; solicitude looks out at each earnest eye; fear and precaution are awake and busy, and sympathy mingles its tears with the offices of kindness and religion. If, however, in the same vicinity, one after another, in fearful succession, plunges himself in death by intoxication, no general concern is manifested; no arm is raised to arrest the suicide. It is lightly said, that a unit is added to the bills of mortality; that the retailer has lost a customer, and Bacchus a votary. We ask, Is not this the apathy, and this the language of the day? We ask the friends of their country, Does not this demand the severest reprobation? Is it humane? Is it christian? Is it patriotic?

Though the desolations of death produce little excitement, it might be expected that a sense of interest would quicken sensibility, when rags and poverty call for legal relief. The evil of pauperism is great and increasing. Its burdens will soon swell to that gigantic amount which defies calculation. "England now presents a spectacle unparalleled in history. The voice of her parliament, the language of her legislators, and the testimony of her public economists concur in pointing to her pauperism as an abuse which shakes her system to its centre." The annual expense of the pauper system in England, is not less than thirty-five and a half millions of dollars. One ninth part of her population is supported by one third part of the remainder. This mischief is not the growth of recent and trying days. It has been increasing and gathering strength for more than two centuries. We mention this tremendous evil in a foreign country, not to excite wonder, but to stimulate inquiry and reflection. We, in New England, are pursuing the same course with regard to paupers, and are proceeding with frightful rapidity to the same results. Our pauper system and theirs are the same in almost every principle. The expense there comes upon the landholder; here all property is taxed for this object. This, however, makes no difference in the principle. It makes neither one pauper less nor more. There is only one difference which much affects the increase or diminution of the poor. We do not allow a person to be removed for fear of future burdens merely. Until a man is chargeable, he cannot be taken from his abode and carried back to the place of his settlement. In a great variety of cases, it is otherwise in England. This is obviously a difference against them. There, a labouring man cannot safely pass the line of the parish where he is settled. The magistrate may compel his return. Thus, the only means of improving his condition may

be forcibly taken from him. In great manufacturing districts, a sudden depression of business deprives thousands of employment, and the laws deny them the means of seeking it elsewhere, except on terms with which few can comply. This was the original system; and though parliament, with sedulous care, has, within the last three fourths of a century, so modified and made exceptions for the benefit of regularly bred artificers, that the pressure on them is somewhat alleviated, yet it is still heavy and severe. With this difference only in the systems, we are proceeding with alarming strides in the downward road which England has trodden, and are accumulating a burden, which, at no very distant day, will be too grievous to be borne. We may talk of the oppression of taxes in England; of the inconstancy of her manufactures, which depend on foreign markets; and of the astonishing increase of her labour-saving machinery; and flatter ourselves that these and other peculiarities conspire to render the state of that country different from our own. "But there is a uniformity in moral causes and effects, that runs through the history of empires, and extends back to the commencement of every political system that has arisen into existence. If public almshouses, the improvident and indiscriminate administration of public and private charities, and many other resorts, have encouraged pauperism in Great Britain, they will have the same tendency here, whenever and wherever adopted. This is a rational and an infallible truth, worthy to direct and guide in all deliberations and efforts" on this subject.

The pauper burden of the State of Massachusetts has increased three fifths within the last twenty-five years; and probably that of *the towns* has increased more. In this Commonwealth,—where the facilities for acquiring a livelihood are the blessing and the boast of the people; where industry is sure of its reward; where the soil will support one hundred times the present number of inhabitants,—it is an appalling fact, that, at the beginning of only the third century of its existence, one seventieth part of its population is supported by public charity. There are not less than seven thousand paupers in this State, at an expense of at least three hundred and sixty thousand dollars annually. Half the yearly tax is levied and expended for this object; while three hundred thousand dollars more is paid by the towns for the support of town paupers. If this sum were divided by the number of towns in the Commonwealth, each would pay more than one thousand dollars *per annum*. Add to this sum the charge for State paupers, and it will appear that the citizens of Massachusetts are taxed about a

thousand dollars a day for their poor. This is not all. The expenses of litigation respecting settlements are to be added to the account,—an item of a magnitude scarcely credible.*

One half, at least, who, throughout the State of Massachusetts, are reduced to want and cast upon the public, are thus reduced by intemperate drinking. We do not say this at random, but after much inquiry, and upon satisfactory data. We have no doubt it is so in other states. The nonsense and falsehood, therefore, are not to be tolerated,—that the drunkard is an enemy only to himself and his family.

The time is at hand,—indeed it has already arrived,—when every friend of the State, every man who regards his own interest, must think and act with reference to the diminution of the poor rates. The subject is a difficult and a delicate one, and this is not the occasion to discuss it. We have alluded to it, in connexion with the immediate subject of our present remarks, and would willingly awaken attention and excite alarm respecting it.

Having thus glanced at the effects of drunkenness upon the numbers and resources of the country, we might proceed to depict its demoralizing effects; to show that it instigates to every crime within the cognizance of the law,—every crime which justice punishes or mercy pardons. But the subject is not to our taste, nor appropriately within our province.

It is important that it should be understood how much of this evil arises from causes that are within the power of the law and the local magistrates, and how much may be done by the efforts of benevolent individuals, which cannot be reached by legislative enactments. It cannot be improper to notice incidentally the deficiencies in the laws themselves.

The first great prominent mischief within the reach of the laws, as they now stand, is the enormous number of licensed houses. The very requisition of a license supposes the evil and danger of an unrestrained sale of ardent spirits. Experience

* By a report of a committee of the legislature of New Hampshire, made about five years ago, it appears that the annual expenditure in that State for paupers, "during the period of the last twenty years, increased more than fourfold; giving a ratio of increase that will double the expenditures in less than five years."

"From 1799 to 1805,	expenses were	$91,433
From 1805 to 1810,	do.	121,239
From 1810 to 1815,	do.	185,836
From 1815 to 1820,	do.	324,995

"During the same period of twenty years, our population," say the committee, "has not probably increased much more than one fourth. Habitual intoxication is doubtless *the most common cause* of pauperism."

proves it. Otherwise there could be no necessity nor propriety in confining the sale of small quantities to select hands. It was not so in the temperate days of our early British ancestors. Until the reign of Edward VI. any man might keep an alehouse at his pleasure. If he kept a disorderly one, he was liable to be punished for a nuisance, like every other subject who so conducted his business as to annoy the community. But at that period, the evil had advanced to a stage which called for the interference of the government; and the license of the magistrate has ever since been required. In granting licenses, the magistrates are required by the law, and by their oaths, to regard exclusively the public accommodation and welfare, without reference to the importunity, the convenience, or the interest of the applicant. This, too, is the theory of our own laws; and if it is not regarded in practice, there is a breach of trust and of duty, for which our municipal authorities and our Courts of Sessions are responsible.

The establishment of respectable inns is a proof and an accompaniment of increasing civilization. The increase of dram-shops is the effect and the cause of increased and increasing depravity. It may be affirmed broadly, and without qualification, that every public house not required for the convenience of travellers and wayfarers, is a seminary for idleness, misery, crime, and pauperism; a public evil, and a cause of evil. The English statutes on this subject, and our own, assert this doctrine. Experience demonstrates it. Our selectmen are required to certify to the Court of Sessions, *what number* of innholders and retailers *they judge to be necessary for the public good.* And to prevent intemperance, and nuisances of vice and debauchery, the Sessions are directed *not to license more persons*, in any town, to keep houses for common entertainment, or to retail spirituous liquors, than the justices *shall judge necessary for the receiving and refreshment of travellers and strangers*, and to serve the public occasions of the town, or are necessary *for the public good.* Such are the requirements of the Massachusetts statute. But the spirit of this law is shamefully disregarded. We ask those who attend at the terms of court when licenses are granted, whether they should suspect that the justices, in many counties, had any responsibility or discretion on the subject; whether they do not, in general, act as mere registers? We have heard it openly announced, by the Court of Sessions in one county, that they should be governed entirely by the selectmen's certificate; that they should license none without *their* approbation, and refuse license to no one for-

mally approbated. We call for the indignant reprobation of such a dereliction of duty,—such a paltry skulking from responsibility. We care not how trifling the function, let it be discharged with fidelity and care, according to law, according to the *oath* of the officer. But, if we except the ministers of the altar, we know not to whose hands the public morals are more definitely entrusted, than to those, who, not in the first instance, but in a kind of appellate jurisdiction, control the licenses for public houses. Theirs is a solemn judicial trust. By carelessly executing, they violate it. It is in their power to check the ravages of moral disease, or to overwhelm us with idlers, drunkards, and paupers.

Selectmen have no higher duty than to preserve their towns from the vices and miseries of intemperance; and we ask, why do not our laws require that they should be sworn to the faithful performance of this duty? By a statute (probably of no validity) they must take an oath impartially to execute their trust with regard to *elections*. But this is all. The pettiest ministerial officer,—even a hog-reeve,—cannot extend his restraining hand, until he has been solemnly sworn into office. Why should not our municipal fathers be under at least an equal obligation to act with fidelity in confining the range of intemperance? We put it to their consciences, whether they would, under the solemnity of an oath, set their signature to a certificate that *the public good* requires that so many houses should be licensed as they now annually approbate.

It requires no reasoning to show, that by a faithful discharge of duty, according to the letter and spirit of the law, intemperance could be checked, and salutary effects be immediately perceptible. It is most manifest, that every facility for procuring the means of intoxication must increase the evil. A committee of the House of Commons in England, who were charged, a few years since, with the duty of devising and reporting measures to diminish drunkenness, and its concomitant evils, stated their opinion, that the most effectual method would be to lessen the number of public houses. The statement of facts, which accompanied this report, proved the correctness of their opinion. When the number of such houses is greatly increased, there may be for a time a lack of support and of customers. Competition will arise, and vile measures be adopted to allure company. If mere idleness and thirst will not fill the house, some other inducement must be offered. There must be a puppet-show, a juggler, a rope-dancer, or a shooting-match. It is a maxim, which the experience of the world has confirmed, that when

business of any kind is undertaken by too many hands, there will be mismanagement, dishonest shifts, and ultimate mischief to all who are connected with or affected by it, and to society. Observation teaches us, that drunkards, like pigeons, will multiply in proportion to the houses that are prepared for them. Experiments have shown, that their numbers are diminished by diminishing their haunts. In different parts of Massachusetts, the trial has been made with evident success. It was made by Mr Colden, while he was mayor of New York, with a firmness that deserves all commendation. He reduced the number of licenses one eighth, during the two first years he was in office, and the consequence was an immediate diminution of drunkenness and of crimes. The warrants issued from the police office for the apprehension of offenders against the peace, were reduced three fifths. And though, as he stated, his refusal to grant licenses created more ill will towards him than all the duties of the mayoralty; he found his reward in the melioration of the public morals, and the benedictions of the virtuous and patriotic.*

So far as the redundant number of public houses is the cause of drunkenness and crime in New England, the law is adequate to the remedy. We call on those to whom its administration and execution are committed, to carry it into effect with firmness, and according to its true spirit. If it is painful and odious to punish offences, it is not so to prevent them.

The cheapness of ardent spirits presents inducements and affords means of excessive drinking in this country, which are

* We cannot resist the temptation to quote, in this connexion, a passage from a public letter of the late mayor of New York above mentioned, in which he proposed a law, which should entirely separate the tavern and the grocery, and even the selling of liquors by retail from all other business not necessarily connected with tavern-keeping. "Allow me," he says, "to point out, by a representation of what I know to be daily occurrences, some of the pernicious effects of the union of these two employments. The honest and soberly disposed mechanic or labourer, who finds at the conclusion of a day, or at the end of a week, that his industry has afforded him the means of providing for his family, goes in the evening to a grocery, to get his bread or his meat for the succeeding day or week. At the grocery he meets many of his companions on the same errand. Good will and generous and liberal feelings will prompt one to treat; pride and similar dispositions will prompt each of the others to do as much. One glass raises the spirits, and gives rise to additional inclination for another; till money, which might have been, and was intended to be saved, is expended; and the man, who never would have thought of going to a tavern, often retires from the grocery in a condition very inimical to the peace and prosperity of his family. The *necessity* of visiting the grocery is an excuse for the repetition for such scenes, till intoxication becomes a habit; that habit is at length indulged by running in debt; and idleness and ruin ensue. The unfortunate victim is hurried from the grogshop to the jail, and his family to the poorhouse."

This representation deserves to be weighed by legislators and reflecting men of every class. The proposed measure may be more necessary in large towns, but would have a salutary influence in every part of the country.

without example in the history of the world. All other civilized nations have made it a part of their political economy to tax the means of drunkenness, for the purpose both of morality and a revenue. In Great Britain, the duties on imported spirits and the excise on those distilled in the kingdom are so regulated as to enhance the price of both. The latter are kept at a price just sufficiently below the former to give them the preference in the general market. Thus the business and productions of the kingdom are encouraged, while the public morals are guarded. The cost of spirituous liquor imported into that country is more than treble its price here; and their spirits distilled at home are six times as high as our New-England rum and gin, and the whiskey of our Western States. *Here* there is a trifling duty on imported spirits, which does not materially affect the price, and which operates only on the seaboard and in the vicinity of navigable waters, where they are principally consumed. There was a time when stills and distilled spirits were subject to an excise, and the revenue solemnly pledged for the payment of the public debt. This, however, excited insurrection and was abolished. The effect of this low price is mischievous beyond conception. With little more than half the population of Great Britain, the United States consume five times the quantity of ardent spirits which there come under the inspection of the revenue officers. The whole consumption of that kingdom, on an annual average (excepting brandies and smuggled liquors) is less than six million gallons. We find means to dispose of thirty millions, and to refute, by facts which cannot be denied, the theory of Adam Smith, who supposed that if all duties and excises upon liquors in England were removed at once, it would "occasion a pretty general and *temporary* drunkenness among the middling and inferior ranks of people, which would soon be followed by a *permanent* and almost universal sobriety." There seems to be no prospect of enhancing the price of spirits by additional duties, or by an excise,*—and the more strenuous efforts are therefore requisite to withstand the mischiefs of intemperance, in some other manner.

The resolute exercise of the duty of posting common drunkards, has always produced a good effect. The dread of being publicly advertised is found to be more strong than the fear of poverty and ruin. If the sense of shame can in any way be

* "If you could *taste* some of my old whiskey," said a member of Congress from one of the Western States, to a member from New-England, "you could not have the *heart* to tax it."

excited, let it be wrought upon. Defective as the laws are, a spirited and impartial enforcement of them would prevent much evil.

The power of appointing guardians over those who waste their estate by excessive drinking, has been too squeamishly exercised. Indeed we have often been reminded while noticing the manner in which this subject is handled, and this authority exerted, of the sarcastic remark of Dr Gregory of Edinburgh,—that Britons are freemen, and Great Britain a free country, and that no one incident of freedom is more highly prized by the people of that country, than the liberty of doing foolish and wrong things, and of going to the devil in their own way. In Rome, it was a fundamental law—a law of the twelve tables—that prodigal persons should be subjected to the care and custody of a tutor; a law as sacredly regarded, and as rigidly enforced as were the laws of Moses among the Jews. A treble benefit arises from this course of proceeding, wherever it is adopted; the means of intoxication are withheld from the ward; his family is saved from want, and the public from expense. With no little surprise, we recently learned, that in the state of New-York, no power existed, till within five years, to place this class of spendthrifts under guardianship. The Chancellor, by a statute passed in 1821, has now the same power there over habitual drunkards, as he always had over lunatics.

The statutes of Massachusetts, so far as they directly affect the drunkard, regard merely the public expense. The hand of the law is not laid upon him, until he endangers the public finances. After suffering him to proceed with impunity, until the habit of intemperate drinking is confirmed, and reformation is hopeless, it interposes by a mandate to the selectmen to post him, and by a penalty of five dollars upon the taverner or retailer who shall afterwards supply him with spirituous liquor. Formerly, the law considered drunkenness as a crime in itself, and the drunkard a criminal offender. The offence was punishable by fine, which was to be enhanced upon a repetition of it. If the offender was unable to discharge the fine, he was to be punished by the stocks, imprisonment, or whipping. This was not the code of a puritanical government. Our ancestors brought it with them from England. Other countries have had similar views of this odious vice. By a law of the Lesbians, given by one of the seven wise men of Greece, every crime committed in intoxication received a double punishment. The Romans punished drunkenness with severity. In the early days of their history, a woman

was subject to death for this offence; the punishment was afterwards changed to a forfeiture of the right of dower.* By the former laws of Spain, a man who had been once voluntarily inebriated, was forever disqualified to testify in a court of justice. Drunkenness was not punishable in England, earlier than the reign of James I. Lord Coke, who during that reign compiled his institutes of crown law, says "the laws against drunkenness are *very new*." He further says, "King Edgar, permitting many of the *Danes* to inhabit here (who first brought into this realm excessive drinking), was in the end constrained to make a law against this excess (which never cometh alone), driving certain nails into the sides of their cups, as limits and bounds, which no man upon great pain should be so hardy as to trangress. If the excess of drinking extend to that loathsome and odious vice of drunkenness, it is punishable by act of parliament. And to say the truth, *the ancient Britons were free from this crime*."

There were police officers at the public expense, in the early days of Massachusetts, whose duty it was to inform against drunkards, and to bring them before the magistrate. And we fully concur in the opinion of the late Mr Dexter, who took a deep interest in this subject, that the most effectual, if not the only sure means of restraining this destructive evil, is to revive the principle of the old colonial laws, and punish voluntary drunkenness as a crime *per se*, in the same manner as larceny or counterfeiting is punished. Such a law, faithfully enforced, would produce most beneficial effects; and we see no objection to it, which might not be made to any punishments of any offence now warranted by our laws. But the public sentiment cannot be brought at present to sanction such an infraction of a *free citizen's liberty* to brutify himself, annoy his neighbours, and corrupt the public morals.

Although we have heard it asserted by one of the justices of the Court of Common Pleas in this Commonwealth, in a charge to a grand jury, that all the efforts of societies for the suppression of intemperance would produce no beneficial effects; we avow ourselves to be of a totally different opinion. We are not among those who admit the belief that nothing can be done. Much may be done; much has been done. By the cautious, but firm and inflexible performance of duty—by union and energy—effects will be produced. The efforts of societies in England,

* M. Cato non solum existimatas, sed multatas quoque a judice mulieres refert, non minus, si vinum in se, quam si probrum et adulterium admisissent. *Aulus Gellius*, Lib. x. cap. 23.

supported by parliament, have caused great results. The health of Great Britain has been promoted. The number of deaths in that kingdom has been diminished more than one fifth within the last thirty-five years. There has been an increase of population there within the last fifteen years of two millions, notwithstanding her wasteful wars and numberless emigrations. Her political economists concur in ascribing these effects to the decrease of intemperance as one of the principal causes. This decrease is the effect of individual exertion, and of the interest and alarm that were excited by the statements, the petitions and remonstrances of voluntary associations.

The efforts of such associations, to be of practical efficacy, must be chiefly confined to prevention. The reform of such as are confirmed in transgression is almost hopeless. Polemon renounced his habits of intoxication at the reproof and remonstrances of Xenocrates; and a few modern instances show that despair is wrong. But they are too few to form the basis of any system. Temporary amendment excites hope, and often produces confidence, but it is generally abused, and the subject of it returns, upon some slight temptation, to viler and more desperate excess.

Sudden and hasty changes are not to be expected or desired. They can be effected by no means that are fitted to the nature of man, or adapted to his permanent welfare. It is not the expectation of rational men that any efforts of theirs will renovate the state of society at once. The progress of every thing moral is gradual. *Moderata durant.* Political revolutions may be achieved by sudden violence and boldness; but the sword is generally the instrument, and tumult and death the accompaniments. Even with such weapons and such warfare, the end is hopeless, unless there has been a long endurance of evils, real or imaginary, and an extensive union both of design and effort. And after all, the change produced is oftener for the worse than for the better; at least, a great portion of those who are concerned, or who sit in judgment on the affair, will so esteem it.

The necessity of union for objects, like those which the Society for the Suppression of Intemperance has in view, is far greater than for the enforcement of the laws against the higher offences. In the latter cases, the injury to the sufferer is a sufficient stimulus. He who is robbed will pursue the felon to recover his property. He needs no sense of public duty to quicken his steps or enliven his vigilance. And even were he so lost to the public interest—were his regard to the safety and welfare of society so

weak and faltering as to induce him to forego the trouble of further measures, after obtaining his goods—the law has checked him by its penal sanctions. If he compounds a felony, he becomes an offender himself, and is sure of meeting an exemplary punishment. Not so with the abuses and vices that lead to robbery and every other crime. Drunkenness does not immediately affect the beholder. "It neither picks his pocket, nor breaks his leg." He has no immediate *personal* interest in the correction of the offender. Besides, there is an odium attached to individual interference in cases of mere morals. Such interference is imputed to personal enmity or to a restless officiousness. Very different is it, however, when men of sobriety and elevated character unite for definite purposes—purposes publicly known and avowed; and when the support of all is mutually plighted. Strength is thus accumulated, personal odium avoided, and a restraining impression made. We know, indeed, that evil principles are more active than good, because they are more restless. But good principles, when brought into action, are the strongest and most enduring. To restrain the former, and to foster and give an object and a direction to the latter, is one of the main ends of civilized society.

Hope and principle (the want of which is frequently the cause of intemperate drinking) may be given to men by human institutions. It is no less the duty than the interest of a government to see that they are given. And no government has shown a more provident and fostering regard to this great object, than is displayed in the constitution and laws of this Commonwealth. The literary and moral instruction, which is the fruit of those laws, furnishes a delightful subject of contemplation. It must, however, be passed by at this time with a single remark—that this system of early instruction is a more efficacious preventive of drunkenness, pauperism, and crime, than all the terrors of penal enactments with their bloodiest sanctions. Let it be cherished, *improved*, and perpetuated.

Entertaining these views, and confiding in the character and wisdom of the Massachusetts Society for the Suppression of Intemperance, we fervently hope they will pursue the good work they have undertaken; and doubt not they will hereafter be acknowledged as public benefactors.

Quique sui memores alios fecêre merendo,
Omnibus his niveâ cinguntur tempora vittâ.

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1. *Report from the Commissioners appointed to Revise the Statute Laws of the State of New York, prepared in Obedience to a Resolution of the Assembly; communicated March* 15*th*, 1826. Albany. 1826. 8vo. pp. 112.

2. *Sampson's Discourse and Correspondence with various learned Jurists, upon the History of the Law, with the Addition of several Essays, Tracts, and Documents, relating to the Subject. Compiled and published by Pishey Thompson.* Washington. 1826. 8vo. pp. 202.

UNLESS we greatly deceive ourselves, the undertaking, which the commissioners appointed to revise the statute laws of New York have assumed, is destined to hold a prominent place in the history of American legislation. The Report before us will enable the public to judge of the importance of the object, the best mode of accomplishing it, the competency of those to whom the duty is entrusted, and the probable effect of their labours upon our systems of jurisprudence.

They, whose profession or pursuits make them intimately acquainted with the condition of statute law in our state governments, can most readily appreciate the importance of the subject. There are few persons, however, we apprehend, entirely ignorant of the confusion and prolixity, the numberless repetitions, contradictions, omissions, and other anomalies, which, owing partly to the inconsiderate facility wherewith laws are passed, and partly to the pernicious influence of certain maxims of the common law, deface more or less the statute-book of every state in the Union. To remedy these evils in her own laws, the State of New York, upwards of a year ago, appointed John Duer, Benjamin F. Butler, and Henry Wheaton, commissioners, to collate and revise all the public statutes of the State, of a general and permanent nature. They were charged to collate and reduce into one act, those acts or parts of acts, which related to the same subject; to distribute the consolidated acts into suitable titles and other subdivisions; to omit all acts or parts of acts, which had been repealed, or had expired, or were repugnant to the present constitution; to suggest to the legislature such imperfections as should appear in the revised acts, and the best mode of amending them; to suggest the repeal of old laws, and the enactment of new ones, where they should deem it expedient; and to complete the revision in other respects, so as to render the statutes more plain

and easy to be understood. Such is the object contemplated,—a most valuable and dignified one certainly, and worthy of the enterprising character of New York to attempt.

The Report contains an extract from the revision, with a reprint of the revised statutes, thus affording the most complete and satisfactory evidence of the utility of the scheme. All we ask of those, who doubt concerning its excellence, is, carefully to compare the same law in its existing shape, with the intelligible, clear, simple, and methodical digest of it, which the commissioners have prepared. In regard to these gentlemen individually, without indulging in general encomium, we merely say, that their established characters, and the specimen they have given of the plan and execution of their work, fully justify the choice of the legislature. And we confidently predict, therefore, that this experiment, being tried under such favourable auspices, will be imitated elsewhere, and be followed by the happiest consequences.

The State of New York has not proposed to make a perfect code of all her laws, but only a thorough revision of her statutes. But public sentiment there, and in other parts of the country, is, if we mistake not, gradually undergoing a radical change in relation to this point. A majority of the legal profession are undoubtedly hostile, from habit, education, and other causes, to a reform in our systems of law. But the spirit of inquiry is now too freely exerted to suffer a subject so important, and one which enters so immediately into every body's concerns, to continue long enveloped in the mists of ancient prejudice. There is nothing here to check, permanently, the progress of truth; no kingly government, no titled aristocracy, no complicated fabric of time-sanctioned and prescriptive oppressions, to be shaken and endangered by reducing the laws to a compendious, fixed, and intelligible shape. The example of other times, and other nations, is beginning to have its influence; and the great cause of legal improvement to find advocates among the ablest members of that profession, which has been heretofore esteemed so generally adverse to innovation. In several of the states, the executive has strongly recommended to the legislature the formation of a complete code; which, in the language of Mr Clinton, "would free our laws from uncertainty, elevate a liberal and honourable profession, and utterly destroy judicial legislation, which is at war with the genius of representative government."

Mr Sampson's Discourse, and the various letters and tracts accompanying it, are full of powerful, cogent reasoning upon the desirableness of completing this great work. Many of the pieces

are written by jurists of eminent standing; and all of them conspire to disseminate just notions respecting the vaunted perfection of the common law. They strike, with no feeble hand, at that idol of the English lawyers, whose extravagant praises of it, we, in this country, have been too prone to re-echo, without considering the difference in the spirit and condition of our respective governments.

We will not recapitulate the arguments, which abound in this book, on the utility and expediency of introducing written codes in America. On a future occasion, we may recur to a topic so inviting, and so important to the highest interests of the nation. For the present, we abstain, merely asking those of the profession, with whom antiquated authority is every thing, to ponder the opinion of Sir Francis Bacon, "the wisest" man of his time, and of the great and good Sir Matthew Hale.

In his Preface dedicatory to Queen Elizabeth, prefixed to his Elements of the Common Law, Lord Verulam uses the following language.

But I am an unworthy witnesse to your Majestie of an higher intention and project, both by that which was published by your chancellor in full parliament from your royall mouth, in the five and thirtieth of your happy reigne; and much more by that which I have beene since vouchsafed to understand from your Majesty, imparting a purpose for these many years infused into your Majesties breast, to enter into a generall amendment of the states of your lawes, and to reduce them to more brevity and certainty, that the great hollowness and unsafety in assurances of lands and goods may be strengthened, the swarving penalties that lye upon many subjects removed, the execution of many profitable lawes revived, the judge better directed in his sentence, the counsellor better warranted in his counsaile, the student eased in his reading, the contentious suitor that seeketh but vexation disarmed, and the honest suitor that seeketh but to obtaine his right relieved; which purpose and intention, as it did strike mee with great admiration when I heard it, so it might be acknowledged to be one of the most chosen workes, and of the highest merit and beneficence towards the subject, that ever entred into the mind of any king.

Sir Matthew Hale wrote an admirable tract of some length on the "Amendment of the Laws," in which the whole question of the expediency of *codifying* the common law, is argued in a masterly manner. In his Preface to Rolle's Abridgment, after praising Justinian's reformation of the civil law, he proceeds thus;

And truly, considering to how great a bulk the volumes and books of the common law have, in progress of time, arisen; how many printed resolutions of the same cases or points; how many disagreeing reports there are, touching the same matters; how many contradictory opinions, that would be explained or settled; how many titles are disused; it were to be wished that some complete *corpus juris communis* were extracted out of the many books of our English laws, for the public use, and for the contracting of the laws into a narrower compass and method, at least for ordinary study. But this is a work of time, and requires many industrious and judicious hands and heads to assist in it.

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1. *The Claims of Puritanism; a Sermon, delivered at the Annual Election, May* 31, 1826. By the Rev. ORVILLE DEWEY. Boston. 8vo. pp. 32.
2. *Character of the Puritans; a Sermon, preached before the Ancient and Honourable Artillery Company, June* 5, 1826. By F. W. P. GREENWOOD. Boston. 8vo. pp. 22.

WE have been highly gratified with the perusal of these two eloquent discourses. They are honourable to our clergy, and to our country. Mr Dewey takes occasion, from the New England character of the celebration in which he is engaged, the delivery of a sermon before the legislature of the State of Massachusetts, at the opening of the political year, to discuss the character of the puritans, the fathers of New England. This subject has lately attracted much attention, and the orator takes up their cause with the zeal of a champion. He eulogizes the spirit of dissent from established institutions, as synonymous in their case with the spirit of improvement; the courage with which they fought the battles of liberty in the time of Charles I.; the disinterestedness which led them to sacrifice their own immediate interest for the good of posterity; the intelligence and foresight displayed in their establishments, civil, literary, and religious. They have never, he considers, been held in just estimation, because it has been left to their enemies to tell their story. We have no wish to deny their merits. Their descendants may justly glory in them. But the orator seems to us to have dealt too exclusively in panegyric, when it is considered, that the current of opinion is now running strongly in their favour, and that it is not so much a defence, as a just exposition of their characters, which is needed.

This discourse is properly an eloquent eulogy. Our readers will be pleased with the spirit of the following passages.

Let it not be forgotten, then, at least by us, the immediate descendants of these men, for the sake of our gratitude and our virtue, too, let it not be forgotten, that when the weary pilgrim traversed this bleak coast, his step was lightened, and his heart was cheered, by the thoughts of a virtuous posterity; that when our fathers touched this land, they would fain have consecrated it as a holy land; that when they entered it, they lifted up their eyes towards heaven, and said, "Let this be the land of refuge for the oppressed and persecuted, the land of knowledge, and O! let it be the land of piety." Let the descendants of the pilgrims know, that if their fathers wept, it was not for themselves alone; if they toiled, they toiled,—or as one of them nobly said,—they "spent their time, and labours, and endeavours for the benefit of them who should come after;" that if they prayed, they prayed not for themselves alone, but for their posterity. And, little, it may be, do we know of the fervour and fortitude of that prayer. When *we* pray, we kneel on pillows of down, beneath our own comfortable dwellings; but the pilgrim kneeled on the frozen and flinty shore. *Our* prayers ascend within the walls of the consecrated temple; but the mighty wave, and the shapeless rock, and the dark forests were *their* walls; and no sheltering dome had they, but the rolling clouds of winter, and the chill and bleak face of heaven. We pray in peace, and quietness, and safety; but their anxious and wrestling supplication went up amidst the stirring of the elements, and the struggle for life; and often was the feeble cry of the defenceless band broken by the howling of wild beasts, and the war-whoop of wilder savages.

Yes, our lot has fallen to us in different times; and now it is easy for us, no doubt, calmly to survey the actions of those who were engaged in the heat of the contest, and we have leisure to talk at large about ignorance, and bigotry, and superstition; and we can take the seat of grave wisdom, and philosophize upon the past, when to philosophize is all that we can do. Yes, it is easy, now that the forest is cleared away, and we bask in the sunshine which they have opened upon us, through the deep and dark foliage,—it is easy, no doubt, coolly and nicely to mark their mistakes and errors; but go back to the struggle with fear, and want, and disease,—go to the fields which they cultivated, and see them with the felling axe in one hand, and the weapon of defence in the other,—go back to all the rude dwellings of poverty and trouble; but you cannot,—even in imagination you cannot. No; the days of trial and suffering *have* been,—but it is not for us, even to understand what they were! This little only is required of

us,—to do justice to the virtues which we have no longer any opportunity to imitate. * * *

These are the days, these are the men, that we are called upon to remember and to honour. But it is not enough, to remember their deeds; we are bound, let me add in the close, to imitate their virtues.' This is the true, the peculiar honour which we are bound to render to such an ancestry. The common measure of national intelligence and virtue is no rule for *us*. It is not enough for us to be as wise and improved, as virtuous and pious, as other nations. Providence, in giving to us an origin so remarkable and signally favoured, demands of us a proportionate improvement. We are in our infancy, it is true, but our existence *began* in an intellectual maturity. Our fathers' virtues were the virtues of the wilderness, yet without its wildness; hardy, and vigorous, and severe, indeed, but not rude, nor mean. Let us beware lest we become more prosperous than they, more abundant in luxuries and refinements, only to be less temperate, upright, and religious. Let us beware lest the stern and lofty features of primeval rectitude should be regarded with less respect among us. Let us beware lest their piety should fall with the oaks of their forests; lest the loosened bow of early habits and opinions, which was once strung in the wilderness, should be too much relaxed.

In Mr Greenwood's discourse upon the same subject, a liberal tribute of praise is also bestowed upon the lofty virtue of the fathers of New England, but mingled with just comments upon their faults; their religious intolerance as rigid as that from which they fled; the cruelty of which they were too often guilty towards the Indians; their superstitious belief in prodigies, and dread of the wiles of Satan, as well as the needless austerities, with which they burthened religion. The defence of their faults, deduced from the character of the age, Mr Greenwood rejects in the following words.

If there is no fault in agreeing with the bad spirit of the age, there is no merit in resisting it. The puritans, in some important particulars, took bold and gigantic strides before their age. Are they to be praised and had in affectionate and honourable remembrance for doing so? Then let them not escape a due degree of censure, if we find, that in other respects, they halted *with* their age; and went not out from its darkness.

That he does not, however, suffer his sense of their faults to blind him to their merits, this eloquent passage sufficiently evinces;

One of the most prominent features which distinguished our forefathers, was their determined resistance to oppression. They

seemed born and brought up, for the high and special purpose of showing to the world, that the civil and religious rights of man, the rights of self-government, of conscience, and independent thought, are not merely things to be talked of and woven into theories, but to be adopted with the whole strength and ardour of the mind, and felt in the profoundest recesses of the heart, and carried out into the general life, and made the foundation of practical usefulness, and visible beauty, and true nobility. Liberty, with them, was an object of too serious desire and stern resolve, to be personified, allegorized, and enshrined. They made no goddess of it, as the ancients did; they had no time nor inclination for such trifling; they felt that liberty was the simple birthright of every human creature; they called it so; they claimed it as such; they reverenced and held it fast as the unalienable gift of the Creator, which was not to be surrendered to power nor sold for wages. It was theirs as men; without it they did not esteem themselves men; more than any other privilege or possession it was essential to their happiness, for it was essential to their original nature; and therefore they preferred it above wealth, and ease, and country; and that they might enjoy and exercise it fully, they forsook houses and lands and kindred, their homes, their native soil, and their fathers' graves. They left all these; they left England, which, whatever it might have been called, was not to them a land of freedom; they launched forth on the pathless ocean, the wide, fathomless ocean, soiled not by the earth beneath, and bounded all round and above only by heaven, and it seemed to them like that better and sublimer freedom which their country knew not, but of which they had the conception and image in their hearts; and, after a toilsome and painful voyage, they came to a hard and wintry coast, unfruitful and desolate, but unguarded and boundless; its calm silence interrupted not the ascent of their prayers; it had no eyes to watch, no ears to hearken, no tongues to report them; here, again, there was an answer to their soul's desire, and they were satisfied, and gave thanks; they saw that they were free, and the desert smiled.

I am telling an old tale; but it is one which must be told, when we speak of those men. It is to be added, that they transmitted their principles to their children and, that, peopled by such a race, our country was always free. So long as its inhabitants were unmolested by the mother country in the exercise of their important rights, they submitted to the form of English government; but when those rights were invaded, they spurned even the form away. This act was the revolution, which came of course, and spontaneously, and had nothing in it of the wonderful or unforseen. The wonder would have been, if it had not occurred. It was indeed a happy and glorious event, but by no means unnatural;

and I intend no slight to the revered actors in the revolution, when I assert that their fathers before them were as free as they, every whit as free. The principles of the revolution were not the suddenly acquired property of a few bosoms; they were abroad in the land in the ages before; they had always been taught like the truths of the Bible; they had descended from father to son, down from those primitive days, when the pilgrim, established in his simple dwelling, and seated at his blazing fire, piled high from the forest which shaded his door, repeated to his listening children the story of his wrongs and his resistance, and bade them rejoice, though the wild winds and the wild beasts were howling without, that they had nothing to fear from great men's oppression and the bishops' rage. Here were the beginnings of the revolution. Every settler's hearth was a school of independence; the scholars were apt, and the lessons sunk deeply; and thus it came that our country was always free; it could not be other than free.

The Harvest Festival, with other Poems. By F. S. H. Boston. 1826. 18mo. pp. 79.

If a candid and liberal criticism can at any time assist the efforts, and contribute to the improvement of poetical genius, it is when its first productions are offered to the public. The voice of encouragement is then peculiarly grateful, though it be heard only in the doubtful language of our author;

> Ye seek the wreath of Fame: toil on, toil on;
> When ye are low, *perhaps* they 'll bring its flowers,
> And strew them carelessly upon your *graves*.

Then, too, if ever, will the hints of a candid censor be read and regarded; while the mind has not yet acquired that contempt of the opinions of others, which has ruined more authors than either indolence or stupidity.

But it is not our design to analyze the contents of this little volume, more minutely, than will be necessary to justify the very favourable opinion we shall express of it. Indeed a laboured criticism in this case, would be two much like placing a butterfly upon the rack of inquisition.

The most prominent trait in the author's style, is its melody. The lines entitled "Wanderings," and most of the songs, deserve, in this respect, particular notice. Of the last, we are most pleased with one addressed "To Ismenia," and the "Persian Songs," explaining in words, the expressive language of the

token-flowers of Eastern lovers. The Persian song we extract as a favourable specimen of our author's powers.

THE MAIDEN TO HER LOVER.

Before the winning breeze could steal
  Morn's sprinkled pearl-drops from this rose,
I culled it, that it might reveal
  The tale *my lips* dare not disclose.

Its leaves of virgin tenderness,
  Where I have pressed a kiss for thee,—
Its blush of maiden bashfulness,—
  Both tell of love and secrecy.

For they have bound my flowing curls,
  And told me, that ere eve's mild hour,
They 'll deck me with their gems and pearls,
  To shine the queen of Iran's bower.

But I will toil and tempest brave,
  And roam the desert *at thy side*,
And kiss thy feet, and live thy slave,.
  Rather than be proud Iran's bride.

But it would be unjust to represent the style of these productions as melodious and beautiful, without also referring to articles worthy the higher praise of energy and strength. The "Stranger's" tale, the sketches of the ocean, the mountain, and the cataract, the dying denunciations of "Eponina," are enough to show, that the writer is capable of high imagination and sublime description. This will appear from the following passage, describing the cataract and the mountain.

Seek'st thou the spirit who with magic wand
Can work these wonders? Come, then, let us stand,
Here, on the precipice that overhangs
That everlasting deep. O God! it is
A sight too solemn to look out upon,
Unless with reverence for thy majesty,
And for thy greatness, awe. See how the waves
Come surging onward—heaving, heaving on,
As if a consciousness of their own might
Gave a new impulse to them. See! they strike
The battlements fixed by Jehovah's hand,
And the tremendous roar tells their defeat.
Look! look again—a coronal of foam,
White as a snow-wreath, now surmounts the wave
And sparkles in the sun—and now—'t is gone!

But night comes on; let us begone—we 'll climb
Yon mountain, though it be a toilsome task.
Let no unhallowed word pass from thy lips,
Nor impure thought dwell in thy heart—for now
We leave the earth and all its vanities
Below—and come up to a place, that seems
The threshold of th' Eternal's presence. Hush!
Here in this region Silence sits supreme,
And now she slumbers 'neath the canopy
That darkness spreads around. The sense is pained
By the intensity of stillness, for
Even the breeze, although its dewy wing
Bring freshness with its stirring, in its flight
Is noiseless as the eagle, when he wheels
Alone and undisturbed in the mid air.
The sky above looks dark and fathomless,
Like the great ocean in a troubled dream;
The stars burn with strange splendour, yet their rays
Diffuse no light around, but rather seem
Like orbs that separate the realm of light
From chaos. 'T is a fearful spot—like that
Which David dreamt of, when he spoke of HIM,
Who maketh darkness his abiding-place.

"The Harvest Festival," is a short dramatic poem, containing a pleasing picture of rural enjoyments, made interesting by a plot, consisting of the due proportions of love and accident. "The Fairy Wreath" is full of fanciful imagery. In the article, entitled "Dreams," the author has made to pass before him, in a vision, most of our native bards, drawing from their works the features of their several portraits. None, acquainted with their writings, will find it difficult to distinguish their peculiar traits.

To the writer, whom we thus cordially welcome to the paths of literature, we would recommend the choice of subjects more full of the animation of real life, and more connected with our own history and manners. He has some redundancies of style; but, in these days of laboured dulness, we are not displeased to find a production too exuberant, rather than barren. Some of the blank verse is also composed with that disregard of the final pause, which, though common in some of our best poets, we cannot but regard as injurious to its excellence.

Thesaurus Poeticus; or, a Poetical Treasury of the Choicest Descriptions, Similes, and Sentiments of the most celebrated Foreign and American Poets. By a Clergyman. New York. 1826.

On opening this volume, and reading the title-page, we were impressed with a feeling of reverence, on observing the title of the compiler; notwithstanding the doubtful Latinity of the two first words, which certainly might be amended, by substituting, for the second, the genitive case, singular or plural, of the art or the artist, whose *crack-specimens* this book professes to exhibit. But we were sadly puzzled, when, in reading the title-page further, we found a motto for the performance, obviously written by the compiler. A false modesty has led him to suffix merely an initial letter, to designate the owner of the sample; but a few *disjecti membra poetæ*, interspersed throughout the collection, enable us to ascertain the proprietorship of this valuable *morceau*, which we submit to our readers.

> Is the diamond preferred to silver and gold?
> The moon to the stars that the heavens unfold?
> Is the rose preferred to every flower that springs?
> The nightingale's notes to every bird that sings?
> Do not choice treasures, flowers, within thee, too, lie,
> Thou richest of gardens, of mines,—Poetry?
>
> G.

Yet, even after coquetting a little with this singular bit of versification (to the production of which, none else but the Corybantes, after too potent guttural libations to the jolly god, or the gentlemen and ladies of colour held to labour in the ancient kingdom of the Caribs, on a high festival, could have been accessory), we suspended our judgments, until we had perused the work itself. Title-pages, like faces, are deceptive, as many excellent old saws, in all tongues, which we spare the reader, demonstrate. A clergyman *may* do much good, though he is not particularly familiar with the tongues in which truth was revealed, or those through which they are interpreted. The meaning may be obtained at second-hand, from English commentators. We speak reverently of the sacred function; and pray to be so understood. A person may also have a pretty taste for poetry, though he cannot marry syllables together mellifluously; as one who is delighted with a tune on the harpsichord may struggle severely, but vainly, to elicit the same music from an instrument, in the mystery of whose keys he has no

cunning. Still, there is no more reason, why the former should perpetuate an imprint of his hysterical dithyrambics, than there is why the latter should rack the tympanums of patient Christians with his cruel dislocations of harmony. Yet there may be honest culprits in both cases, and many such we have seen, who cannot be convicted of a trespass on the persons of either of the sister muses; because the *malus animus* was wanting. They were naturally so innocent, as not to know the offence implied in the indecent liberties they were taking, and thought it all extremely devotional, and *correct* (as Mr Grohjan* would say). The *sense* is wanting in either case; and we must work a miracle, before we can reason with such unfortunate subjects, on their mistake.

Thus did we endeavour to interpose as guardians for this worthy clergyman, and deliver him from harsh criticism, in the only possible way, and one, of which he could not personally avail himself,—for "*nemo potest seipsum stultificare*,"—until we began to rummage in his "Treasury."

But, ladies and gentlemen, we are sorry to state, that this collector of diamonds and flowers cannot be satisfactorily acquitted on the plea of extreme innocence and simplicity. He has unaccountably possessed himself of a notion, that he is competent to perform that work of supererogation,—

> To gild refined gold, to paint the lily,
> To throw fresh perfume on the violet;

and not content with setting the diamonds according to his own taste, he has subjected them to new and unheard-of experiments, in order to improve their brilliancy, and sometimes made them vanish altogether beneath the intense fire of his own genius. He has metamorphosed many of his extracts so completely, that their own parents would probably be unable to recognise their offspring in their new state of distortion. Of this we might give some amusing specimens; but forbear, out of charity to the sufferers, and to the criminal himself. Measure, and rhyme, and sense fall sacrifices to his rage for amendment; the *descriptions* sometimes serve only as a canvass for the compiler's own taste for daubing to exercise itself upon; the *similes* in their beautiful state remind us of the pictures delineated on the sides of parallel laths,—by changing our position in looking at which, General Washington is turned into a roaring lion; and the *sentiments* are watered with as much prodigality as the rum of the pious grocer in Joe Miller. It behoves us, however to let the compiler speak

* A character in *Sayings and Doings*.

for himself, in the words of his Preface; "This compilation," says he, "purports to be a dictionary of the most striking thoughts, metaphors, &c., illustrating at a glance the topic of the reader, and enabling him, from various reflections of the best writers, to make *such a choice most correspondent* with his judgment." "If any passages be improperly arranged, or typographic or other errors be observed, the generous reader will be pleased to impute them to unintentional *mistake*, and to the various *other* more important duties devolving on his profession." It is obvious that the cardinal mistake of the author consisted in his supposing that it was his duty to compile and embellish these *pensées*. The paper is white, and the type fair. We regret that we had not an opportunity of advising the compiler, before he employed them in perpetuating this book. We should have strongly recommended to him, in the words of Uncle Toby, to wipe it all up, descriptions, similes, and sentiments, and say no more about it.

MISCELLANY.

INDIAN TRADITIONS.

THE CREATION OF THE ISLAND OF NANTUCKET.

Among the many amusing traditions of the people who preceded us on this continent, that which describes the emergence of the island of Nantucket is not the least singular and interesting. It was told to me in my boyhood by my grandfather, to whom it travelled from a worthy old Indian woman, who had it from the lips of the hereinafter named goblin himself. Depend upon it, Mr Editor, I am an accurate and veracious reporter of the tale as it has reached my day. I am inclined to treat it as a piece of downright history, from remarking, that the phenomena of the islands where the incidents of the tale are supposed to have happened, do actually seem to imply an uncommon origin. Once, indeed, I came near adopting the belief, that they sprung from the sea during the deluge of Deucalion, and that the worthy inhabitants were the very stones which Pyrrha and her consort threw behind them. But my grandfather observing me consulting Hyginus and Psalmanazar upon Inexplicabilities, and learning the cause of my perplexity, related to me the story which I am going to

recount, and which took away all possibility of their classic origin. I hope the inhabitants of those islands will not be offended with me; I am but the relator of the tale. In truth, if they are ruffled with any body, it must be with my grandfather and the old squaw.

At the distance of thirty miles to the west of Nantucket, there is an island known by the name of Martha's Vineyard, and a very fine place it is for one who loves oysters, and grouse-shooting, and plain christian habits. Before the revolution, it was a province of itself, a kind of St Marino, with a royal governor, house of commons, and, if I mistake not, a sub-council of Indian sagamores. Upon the northern side of this latter island, and very near its western end, there dwelt, a century or two before its occupation by the white people, a spirit or goblin of unusual properties, a merry, goodnatured, convivial old fellow, very fond of laughter and a good joke. By way of reference to the name of the little promontory, or *elbow* of land, where he had his ordinary residence, he was called the Devil of Cape Higgin. He was by no means so bad a citizen as his title implied. Faults he had, it is true, but we learn from the best of all possible authorities, that no one is without them. He was something of a libertine, and withal rather cross to his wife; but then he did ample penance for the latter foible, by his extreme attentions to the wives of his neighbours. He drank no ardent spirits, ate usually at a meal the moderate quantity of a couple of tons of whale, roasted on the embers, but smoked like a Spaniard in the latitude of Cuba. He claimed, as his due, one tenth of all the whales, grampuses, and finbacks which might be taken by the people of the island, together with half of all the halibut caught in the month of March. He bore the evil of scarcity, so it was not occasioned by indolence, with great composure. But if a cheat were attempted upon him, or any part of his tribute abstracted, he was as angry as an English rector upon the eloigning of a tithe pig, and growled like the "Native of Virginia" at the national defaulters. The Indians of the vicinity, and all liable to the assessment, little disposed at any time to battle with the infernal spirits, paid their parochial dues with great promptitude, and so seldom came in collision with their grim Apollyon of a neighbour. To tell the truth, it was not for their interest to quarrel with him. He was of main importance to them in many of their pursuits, and assisted them with much good advice. He frequently directed them to a fine school of blackfish, read to them from Low's Almanac the proper time for planting and gathering their corn, and foretold to them the approach of storms, with an accuracy which proved that he did not study the aspect of the heavens from any astronomical diary whatever. He also assisted the young people in their courtships, up to the time of joining

hands, but this, it was said, he did from a disposition very proper to a naughty being like himself. Was any glossy little rogue of a squaw, solicited to become the wife of a youth, whose parents stood out to the tune of more usquebaugh, who but Siwanticot was called in to negociate for a less quantity. Taking all these circumstances into view, it will be readily concluded, that he was a sort of favourite with the people of the island. Indeed, my grandfather was told by the old Indian woman, that he was once their governor, which I verily believe, from a view of some old local laws, where the traces of him are very visible.

But goblins, as well as the children of this world, are subject to changes of opinions, to whims, and phantasies. Siwanticot grew harsh and ill natured as he grew older, and began to harass his subjects with new demands and querulous exactions. He now frequently demanded half of a whale, instead of a tithe, or took *vi et armis* the entierty of a grampus. He broke many well ordered matches, and soured much matrimonial bliss. He set families by the ears, frightened the wild ducks by terrific shouts, cut the springes set for grouse, and in fact, became a very troublesome and impertinent sprite. There was no use in fretting, he was seated as firmly on their necks, as the Old Man of the Sea was upon the back of Sinbad. The islanders bore his freaks with great patience, calmly took up with the offals of the whale, and only adopted the precautionary measure of removing from the immediate vicinity of the uncivil fiend.

Upon the southern shore of the same island of Martha's Vineyard, at some ten or twelve miles distance from the residence of the goblin, lived, at the same period of time, a sachem, the proud and arbitrary chieftain of a territory three miles square. He was very wealthy in ponds well stocked with perch, clams, oysters, and wild fowl, in swamps abounding with terrapins, in grounds adapted to the growing of maize, and in numerous other riches of the sea and of the land. He escaped all contributions, taxes, imposts, and tithes, because, as the goblin said, *clericus clericum non decimat*, the substance of an Indian phrase, which means, goblins do not take from goblins. This legitimate had a daughter, young, brisk, and, for a copper-coloured damsel, very beautiful,

> With bright black eyes, and long black locks,
> And voice like the music of rills.

Withal she was the most accomplished lady in the sachemry of Sanchequintacket. None drew the bow with equal strength, or tortured the prisoner with equal ingenuity, or danced the war dance with equal agility, or piped the war song with lungs as efficient. I must remark, that, according to tradition, the Indian

females were much beholden to her for their taste in ornamenting their persons, and that she was the first, who ever introduced that beautiful jewel, a crab's claw, into the nasal cartilage. It is not to be supposed, that so much strength, and agility, and ingenuity, and musical skill, and taste in dress, failed of exciting love and admiration in the other sex. The paternal palace resembled Grenada in the time of the Abencerrages. She was solicited in marriage by divers sachems and warriors, whose names I would lay before the reader with pleasure, if I remembered them. But no, she was deaf to their entreaties,—laughed at their presents of conch-shells and terrapins, and carefully and scrupulously barred the door of the royal wigwam, against all those suitors, who, according to Indian modes of courtship, came to whisper soft tales at the side of her nocturnal couch. The truth is, she had placed her affections upon a young savage, stern to his enemies, but to her all gentleness, who dwelt at a remote part of the island, and was reputed a kind of *protégé* of the infernal gentleman, who figures in our tale.

The course of true love, it is said, seldom runs smooth. The father objected to the match, because the lover had slain but three foes, nor was of royal parentage, and positively forbad the union. What was to be done? The lovers talked the matter over again and again, and finally determined to apply to Siwanticot for his aid and advice. They forthwith repaired to the usual residence of the goblin. It was a most auspicious moment; he was in a delirium of joy. A school of whales, in a recent dark night, had "got specks in their een," and foundered upon a neighbouring ledge of rocks, and thirty or forty fine calves had been deposited at the mouth of his cave, as his share. Withal, a brother goblin, who lived upon the main land, had presented him with some fine old *kitefoot*, and these, with the occurrence at the same happy moment of other enlivening circumstances, had wrought him up to such unusual good temper, that he forgot his late determination to annoy all lovers, and promised to befriend them. He rose from his seat, put a few hundred pounds of tobacco in his box, took a half roasted grampus from the coals, to pick by the way, and set off for Sanchequintacket, the young warrior perched upon his shoulder, and miss, reposing upon a litter formed by his arm, laid horizontally on his breast.

Siwanticot was none of your sprites, who fly upon a cloud or a moonbeam, but he could use his feet to great advantage upon *terra firma*. He was soon at the goal of his journey, and almost as soon at debating its object. With great calmness, and in perfect silence, for he was by no means a loquacious demon, he heard the father give his reasons for refusing his daughter to her lover, and then inquired if this was all he had to offer against the proposed

union. He was answered in the affirmative. "How much land must he have?" asked he.

"An island," answered the sachem.

"Good. He shall have it," said the goblin, blowing a huge quantity of smoke through his nose. "Follow me."

At the time whereof we write, the island of Martha's Vineyard, as I am informed, extended to, and comprehended the present little island of Tuckanuck, which lies about ten miles from Nantucket. This little island, as I said, was formerly a part of the larger island, but was disjoined from it by some mighty convulsion. To this same Tuckanuck, and to a high cliff upon its eastern side, the goblin conducted his friends. He then sat down upon the ground, and commenced his charm. He first filled his pipe with tobacco, and next lighted it with fire procured by the usual Indian method. When this was done, he bowed once to the rising sun, twice to that part of the sky where the North star is seen, blew thrice in a conch-shell, and commenced smoking upon a "great scale," as the cotton speculators say. In a few minutes, it was as dark as the darkest night. The astonished Indians knew not what to think of the passing occurrences. Presently there was a hissing sound, as of live embers dropping into water. Siwanticot had emptied his pipe. The smoke now began gradually to disperse, and soon there was a low, dark something visible in the east. It was the promised island,—the ashes from the goblin's pipe. Yes, gentle reader, an island, a beautiful, interesting, insulated piece of land, with not a tree to mar its loveliness. In time, it became as green as the turban of a Turkish emir, and has continued so ever since. The happy couple, for whose use and behoof it was created, gave it the name of Siwanticot, which, in time, degenerated into Siasconsit, a word which still survives, though, at this day, it designates only a small, and detached part of the island.

Thus have I given you, with some labour to myself, reader, the Indian tradition of the creation of the island of Nantucket. For myself, I do not know whether to believe it or not, but my grandfather believes it, and the old squaw had no doubt whatever of the truth of it.

J.

EXAMINATION OF AN ARTICLE IN THE "NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW," FOR JANUARY, 1826, RESPECTING THE INDIANS OF AMERICA.

W'tohtimoin neg k'tuwonganu mo wahtiawuun ka matta k'wohtamu w'toh anuwahettit: *that is*, A nation whose language thou knowest not, neither understandest what they say. *Jeremiah*, v. 15.

BY KASS-TI-GA-TOR-SKEE, OF THE FEATHERED ARROW.

[A portion of the subsequent article, not here given, was published in the twelfth number of the New York Review. The following brief abstract of its topics, will enable such of our readers as have not seen that number, the better to understand the continuation, with which we now present them. It sets out by admitting that the article in the North American Review is written with some ability, and still more spirit and boldness, but with a manifest want of learning. This is clear, it is observed, from the attempt to convict Mr Heckewelder of mistakes respecting the Indian languages, on account of his having given, in a German orthography, the very words which the writer himself gives in his more clumsy and variable English one. It accuses the writer of having caught too much of the spirit of the traders on the Indian frontier, of having contracted their prejudices against the Indian character, and of being blind to the manifold frauds and violences, which have been practised by them in their intercourse with this unfortunate people, and which both the general and the state governments have endeavoured to restrain, ineffectually, it is feared, by such minute regulations and severe penalties. It admits that John D. Hunter is an impostor, but denies that either the English public or the Quarterly Reviewers deserve any great blame for suffering themselves to be deceived by him; since he had deceived, in the first place, the citizens of the United Staes, and went to England with American credentials and recommendations in his pocket. With respect to Major Long's *Expeditions*, which the reviewer pronounces to be works of doubtful authority, containing "numerous errors both of fact and opinion," it observes, that this censure ought not to be received as just, until those errors are pointed out. The reviewer's strictures on Heckewelder's Account of the Indians, and his Correspondence with Mr Duponceau, are next considered. In answer to the remark, that the subject of the Indian languages was not familiar to this missionary, and that some of his examples of them were fabricated for the occasion, it is said, that, Mr Heckewelder having, as is well known, passed his entire life among the Indians, and being, as is admitted, an honest man, neither part of this remark can be true. An attempt is then made to show that Heckewelder is right in making the words *Lenni Lennapé* to signify *an original unmixed people*,—a translation which the reviewer affirms they will not bear. This is done by a comparison of the different examples of their use, adduced both by Heckewelder and the reviewer. Finally, the reviewer's assertion, that philologists are mistaken in supposing that the substantive verb, *to be*, does not exist in any of the Indian languages, is considered. The authority of Eliot is referred to, to show that it did not exist in the Massachusetts language, that of Dr Edwards to show that it is not to be found in the Mohegan language, and that of Mr Dencke, a German

missionary in Upper Canada, to show that it is not in the Chippeway language. All these are dialects of the Delaware stock; and the testimonies of Heckewelder and Zeisberger are adduced, to prove that it does not exist in the Delaware itself. The article then proceeds.]

Here I cannot but notice a circumstance in the conduct of the author, which has appeared a little singular; that is, that while he is so ready to "correct" the errors of philologists, and so confident in his own opinions, he should not have given his readers some full, unequivocal examples of the verb *to be*, from his favourite Chippeway language, which he scatters over his pages with such an air, that an uninformed reader would suppose him to be as familiar with it as with his mother tongue; and in which, too, he has displayed at once his delicacy of feeling, and his own peculiarly happy mode of "cherishing the memory of the dead," by getting his interpreter to transcribe into it for him, by way of a grammatical example, the following affectionate tribute to his departed friend,—"Mr Heckewelder's book contains many errors!" If he is, in truth, at all familiar with the structure and niceties of the Chippeway language, it would have been the most natural thing in the world to give from it some clear and decisive examples of the verb *to be*, with the proper grammatical analyses of those examples; he might have settled the question. Now I "happen to know" enough of this language to feel quite safe in challenging him to produce a single unequivocal example of it in the whole range of the Chippeway vocabulary. That he will find approximations and substitutes, which his illiterate interpreters will furnish in "a spirit of accommodation" and "to meet the case," I cannot doubt, from what I have myself seen.

He might also have drawn examples in support of his opinion, if they existed, from the *Cherokee* (of which I shall presently have a word to say to him), the only one of the *Southern* languages of which he says he has any "personal knowledge." Now it is truly surprising, that a writer who thus had it in his power from "personal knowledge" of two Indian dialects of totally different stocks, should not have taken more pains to settle this important point in philology, by whole showers of examples from those dialects. Instead of pursuing this natural course, however, he contents himself with despatching this question in ten lines; four of these contain supposed examples of the substantive verb from the *Miami* and the *Sioux*,—two languages, of which, in all probability, not one of his readers would chance to have the slightest knowledge, or be able to detect any errors in point of fact, or any fallacy in reasoning. Indeed the author himself, in speaking of his examples of other translations, after observing that "full confidence may be placed in the *Chippeway* specimens," adds, "the others are the result of much labour, *but under less* favourable circumstances." p. 89.

Our author's examples of the verb *to be*, therefore, from the *Miami* and *Sioux* languages, will require but two or three brief remarks; whenever they come in a less questionable shape, it will be time enough to scrutinize them more carefully. In regard to the first of them, it will be sufficient for the reader to be reminded, that the *Miami* language belongs to the Delaware or Chippeway family, which has been so fully considered above; and it therefore might be presumed to partake of this family characteristic. But it may be added, that the inquiries hitherto made, authorize the same conclusions in respect to this with the other dialects which have been noticed. I will not, however, fatigue the reader with any further remarks in regard to this very extensive family of languages. As to his *Sioux* examples, they are, upon the face of them, of an equivocal character, the circumstance of *place* or *locality* being a constituent part of the phrase given as an example. I call upon this writer to give a conjugation of his supposed Sioux verb substantive and some examples; it will then be time enough to examine them. If I entertained the same feelings which he betrays, I might retort the language he applies to the writers who come under his censure; I might say to him, I "happen to know" that he cannot, in the Sioux language, furnish any such examples, whatever his illiterate interpreters may pretend to do for him.

In respect to the *Iroquois* or *Huron* stock, we have also very satisfactory information on this point. Besides what is to be found elsewhere, it will be sufficient to refer again to the notes of Mr Duponceau and Mr Pickering on Elliot's Grammar; in which the common opinion of philologists on this point is strongly supported.* There is also abundant reason to believe, that this verb is wanting in the *Southern* dialects. Of these, the *Cherokee* is probably the best known; and, as the reviewer himself tells us of his "personal knowledge" of this language, I cannot but regret, that he has omitted to give us some examples of the substantive verb in it. I regret, too, that the public are not yet in possession of Mr Pickering's *Cherokee Grammar*, which this review informs us has been "constructed with immense pains," and is now in the press. What results that gentlemen expects to lay before the public, I know not; but as I myself, like the reviewer, happen to have some "personal knowledge" of this dialect also, I beg leave to lay before the reader, as briefly as possible, some observations on the point under consideration. The public will then, perhaps, be able to judge of the reasons why the reviewer has declined giving his readers any more light than we find in his remarks upon this part of his subject.

So far as I have any knowledge of this Southern Indian language, I should say, in accordance with the philologists, that it

* P. xli. &c.

has no substantive verb; but, as in other Indian languages, this deficiency is obviated by means of a species of *affixes* or *inflexions*, which are incorporated with the noun, adjective, and other parts of speech, whereby those various parts of speech are in fact changed into verbs. The several distinctions in the modes of supplying this defect would be tiresome to the reader, and not necessary for the purpose of rendering this subject intelligible; I shall, therefore, confine myself to very few examples. And here I ought to apprize the reader, that I write these examples as well as I am able, according to the powers of our inconvenient and changeable English alphabet.

In the first place, it may be observed, as a general, but not universal rule in the Cherokee language, that the *present tense* of our verb *to be* is almost wholly disregarded. But if any particular *emphasis* is necessary, as for instance in answering a question, the *affix* or *inflexion* above alluded to, may be used with the noun, adjective, &c.; as *awsee-eekee uiyung*, "I *am* good," literally, "*good am*, or *is*, I." * In the same manner this indeclinable inflexion is joined to nouns, &c. throughout all the numbers; for example,

Singular.	Tseeweenung-eekee,	I am a man.
Dual.	Eeneeweenung-eekee,	We two (thou and I) are men.
	Awsteeweenung-eekee,	We two (he and I) are men.
Plur.	Eeteeweenung-eekee,	We (you all and I) are men.
	Awtseeweenung-eekee,	We (they all and I) are men, &c.

In the same manner a corresponding inflexion is used to denote the past and the future tenses; as, *tseeweenung-eekásee*, "I was a man," *tseeweenung-eekasestee*, "I shall be a man." But *eeke*, &c. cannot be used alone, or uncombined with other words.

I have not been able to discover, that even this inflexion really conveys the idea of abstract existence; it has rather a tacit reference to the nature, qualities, or circumstances of objects, than their mere existence. And this is the only thing I have been able to discover in the language, which approximates to the pure substantive verb.

I am aware that illiterate interpreters will sometimes make attempts to find such a verb; but, upon a careful analysis in every instance within my own observation, the pretended verb has vanished. They have, for example, in this dialect, the verb *kataw*, which may sometimes be rendered *I am*, but properly means *I am here*, or perhaps *I move here;* it is indeed more usually accompanied with the adverb *ah'hnee*, "here." So, too, they have *weekataw*, which does not mean *I am*, but *I am there*, that is, in a place spoken of. But it is needless to pursue these particulars any further. Enough has been said to show how erroneous this reviewer's no-

* Here, again, I am obliged to express by our awkward *ung*, the Cherokee *nasal*, which has no more of the sound of the letter *g*, than the French nasals have.

tions are, and how unnecessary it was for him to set himself up as a reformer of the errors of our philologists. Though I would not insist, according to Johnson's witticism, that he

Who drives fat oxen should himself be fat;

yet it is no more than proper to apply to one who professes to correct his neighbours, what another English classic says,

Let those teach others who themselves excel.

A few other remarks of the reviewer demand notice. He says, for instance, that "*of abstract ideas* they are almost wholly destitute." Against this round assertion, it is enough to remind the reader of Dr Edwards's opinion in respect to the *Mohegan* dialect of this same stock of languages. That able scholar says, "I doubt not, but there is in this language the *full proportion* of abstract to concrete terms, which is commonly to be found in other languages." * But there is reason to suspect from the reviewer's phraseology, that he does not understand by "abstract terms," the same class of words which philologists and metaphysicians do.

Again; "Languages," says he, "which are not fixed by letters must be liable to perpetual fluctuations." This is no new opinion, but is, I believe, an unfounded one; nay, I have a strong conviction, that the unwritten languages are the least mutable; and for this, among other reasons, because there is no *orthography* to act upon the *pronunciation* and modify it from time to time; whereas, in the *written* languages, the orthography and pronunciation are perpetually acting and re-acting upon each other, as we see in our own tongue. When, in addition to this circumstance, we consider the well known fact, that the illiterate vulgar among civilized nations are always the last to make changes, and that there is no assignable motive why savage tribes should make changes in their language any more than the illiterate among ourselves, I am inclined to think we shall find reason to suppose, that the Indian languages are much more permanent than our author seems to consider them. This, however, is mere matter of opinion at present; I only mean to say, that I want stronger reasons than I have yet seen, to support him in his position.

In the same page, our author has a very singular remark, that "whoever makes the experiment will discover, that much stronger analogies exist between dialects of our Indians, as they have been *written*, than as they are *spoken*. Languages which appear almost identical upon paper, are yet in conversation understood with great difficulty." p. 92. How this should happen, if the languages are written by competent persons, it is difficult to perceive. The case is quite different with the *European* languages, where one common

* Observations, p. 18; with Mr Pickering's Notes upon this part.

written alphabet, like the written numerals, is made the representative of sounds wholly dissimilar. I am not sure that I apprehend the author's argument here. If he means by this remark, that the languages of the Indians have not such a near affinity as they seem to have, because, notwithstanding their affinity when written, the different tribes do not understand each other in speaking, then his reasoning is fallacious; because we know, that the languages of of many European nations, who cannot converse together, are undeniably dialects of a common stock, as they appear to be when written.

The reader has now had an opportunity of seeing something of our author's philological notions. But in order to estimate more justly the value of his numerous criticisms on Mr Duponceau and Mr Heckewelder, it may be necessary to follow him through some of his other remarks in relation to certain words and phrases which are considered by them.

At page 75, he differs from Mr Duponceau, as to the beauty of a certain Indian word, which that gentleman thinks tender and expressive. This, as a mere matter of taste, may come under the trite maxim, that there is no disputing about tastes. Still, if without pretending to be a judge in the case myself, I were called upon to adopt the opinion of the one or the other, I should feel more secure in following the judgment of a gentleman of highly cultivated mind, who has spent his long life in the midst of polished society, than that of a writer who has been under the disadvantage of forming his taste as well as his natural good talents would enable him, amidst the society usually found upon our frontiers. Immediately after he gives us the word, *wulamalessohalian*, "thou who makest me happy;" to which he adds this remark; "The word should be written and pronounced *walemulsoohauleun*, or *walemulsoo hauleun*, for we are strongly inclined to think that liberties have been taken in these combinations, not wholly justified by the Delaware language." Liberties have been taken! that is, as he said of Mr Heckewelder, words have been formed "to meet the case." The case, indeed, ought to be a very strong one to justify language of this sort; and he who makes use of it should be very certain that he stands himself secure.

The reviewer, after quoting four different forms of Indian words,—*wulamalessohalid*, "he who makes me happy," *wulamalessohalquon*, "he who makes thee happy," *wulamalessohalat*, "he who makes him happy," and *wulamalessohalian*, "thou who makest me happy," goes on to reason, as if Mr Duponceau had given these for examples of the pronominal affixes and also of the relative pronoun, in combination with the radical word. And then he adds, *ex cathedrâ* (for he must let me use a little of my school-Latin, as well as himself), "There is no word for *who* in the whole range of the

Indian languages, as far as we are acquainted with them, and there is certainly none in the Delaware." p. 75. Now he might have spared himself this remark; for Mr Duponceau does not give these words to the reader, as examples of the pronouns personal or relative, but merely as "*participles*" of a remarkable character, which every man will agree that they are. They might have been rendered, though not so well, in the participial form, *he making me happy, he making thee happy;* and in this view of these words, I ask him to give me one single example from any language of Europe where the participle is so expressive; suggesting to the mind, at once, the idea of the pronoun governing and governed. I make this last remark, because our author, apparently not having a perfectly distinct view of the point in question, roundly asserts, that in this word "there are no pronominal affixes, nor do either of those syllables indicate the separable or inseparable pronominal suffixes." Now does not he know enough of the Delaware language to remember, that sometimes the *governing* pronoun is placed first and sometimes the pronoun governed; and that although one of those pronouns is generally denoted by its usual sign, *n*, *k*, or *w* for the first, second, and third persons, yet the other is denoted or implied by an inflexion of the verb; just as in Latin the inflexions of *amab-am*, *amab-as*, *amab-at*, imply the *governing* pronouns of the different persons?

On the next page, our author speaks in very unmeasured language of Mr Heckewelder, for presuming to furnish a Delaware word corresponding to the Latin word *morituri;* and here he makes the charge to which I have before alluded, that, Mr Heckewelder's word "has been evidently formed to *meet the case*, and formed upon erroneous principles." I deny both these assertions. The reviewer's opinion rests upon his own analysis of the word in question; and because he can extract out of it a word which *by itself* may be an adverb, he concludes that Mr Heckewelder is in an error, because he treats it, in *a compounded form*, as a verb. Now it is familiar to every man who has looked into this subject, that *adverbs*, and *adjectives*, and almost every part of speech may become verbs, when combined with other words. In the present instance, these two writers have carried the analysis of the whole expression to different stages; but I deny that Mr Heckewelder is mistaken in his views of it.

At page 77, our author still continues to find fault with Mr Heckewelder's method of writing the Indian languages, in conjunction with his method of compounding words. "In p. 368," says he, "we have *wuskilenno* a young man, *kigeyilenno* an aged man, *gichtochquen* an aged woman." Upon which he makes this remark,—"*Wooskee* is *young* and *lunno* is man, and the word given as a combination by Mr Heckewelder is pronounced *wooskee-*

lunno, and is as much two words as *young man* in the English language." I should be glad to know of this reviewer what rule he would adopt for deciding when an Indian or an English word, consisting of several parts, is to be considered a *single* word, and when not. Will he say that it can never be called a single word, when it is susceptible of division into two parts, each of which has a meaning by itself? Then I ask him, in our own language, what he will do with such compounded words as *because*, *heretofore*, *hitherto*, *nevertheless*, *notwithstanding*, *albeit*, *instead*, *understand*, *horseman*, *handkerchief*, *Englishman*, *Frenchman*, with innumerable others, which the usage of our language has made single words, however they may be resolved into constituent parts that are significant by themselves. So in the Indian languages we must ascertain, whether certain expressions are *by usage* treated as single words, and not whether they are susceptible of decomposition.

But our author, not content with disapproving of Mr Heckewelder's mode of writing Indian, and of compounding words, criticises him in some instances for the faults of his printer. As for example, p. 78, he says, "*Eluwantowit* is translated *God above all.* The word should be *aloo wontoowit*, and is formed from *aloowee*, 'more,' and *Katunatoowit* [Katanatoowit?], a compound, of whose elements we are ignorant, but which means *God;* so that *aloo wontoowit* is *more God.*" Now the word *eluwantowit* in Mr Heckewelder's work is manifestly an error of the press, for *eluwannittowit;* which it would be incorrect to write, as this reviewer does, *aloo wontoowit*, and thus suppress one of the constituent syllables of it.

In the same page he has made a truly surprising discovery; that the Delaware language has the sound of the letter *r* in it, for he uses that letter in writing some of his words. He says, for example, that Mr Heckewelder's word, *eluwitschanessik*, 'the strongest of all,' should be written "*aloowee tsharnesseek*, 'more he is strong,' and that *ickalli áal*, 'away with you,' should be *ikarlee awl.* Now it is a well established fact, that the Delaware is one of that class of Indian languages in which the sound of our letter *r* is wholly wanting. Nor can I believe that our author seriously means to maintain the contrary; but he has only adopted in these instances, the clumsy orthography by which the illiterate usually attempt to express the foreign, or Italian sound of *a*, by putting an *r* after it. This little circumstance, with some others, indicates very plainly the impure sources from which he has been obliged to draw a good deal of his Indian learning.

On his next page (p. 79) he thus again criticises his venerable friend Heckewelder: "Several examples are given of the use of the addition *ink;—guawáhenink*, 'at the place of fallen timbers,' *pachséyink*, 'in the valley,' *gámink*, 'on the other side of the river.' The *ink* in these instances," he adds, "is translated *at*, *in*, and *on*. It

is neither of these, but is a mere sign of locality." Why the reviewer should have taken the trouble to make this remark I cannot imagine, unless it was from a determination to differ with Mr Heckewelder at all events. The latter says expressly, almost in the words of the reviewer,—" You have, no doubt, observed in Zeisberger the terminations *ink* and *unk*, which express the idea of locality;" (Correspondence, p. 448) and then he illustrates it by various examples. But it would have been very absurd, if in his collection of familiar *phrases*, at the end of the volume, he had translated that termination constantly by one of our prepositions. What would be thought of a book of French phrases, for instance, in which every expression should be translated literally; and instead of saying that *Comment vous portez-vous* means *How do you do*, it should be gravely said, that it means *How do you carry yourself?*

Another remark of our author on this page, struck me as singular. He says, that "an Indian cannot discriminate between *in* the house and *out* of the house, and *over* the house and *under* the house. This strange poverty in languages, abounding with many useless variations [the grammatical forms], is supplied by gesticulation only; and no man has ever seen an Indian in conversation, without being sensible that the head, and the hands, and the body are all put in requisition to aid the tongue in the performance of its appropriate duty." p. 79.

If our author is well founded in the first of these remarks, it only proves that the Indians have, in this instance, more of abstraction or generalization than we have in our language; and this, so far from being a defect, is considered to be one of the refinements of the civilized languages. How might an Indian, according to our author's principles, retort upon us the poverty of our English tongue in numerous instances; he might, for example, say, You have in your miserable language only one word to express the act of *giving* any thing, but in my rich tongue, I find as many verbs *to give* as there are different kinds of things to be given; one of those verbs expresses, in itself, the giving of any thing solid or bulky, as a peace of meat, a loaf of bread, &c.; another, the giving of any thing of a long or slender shape, as a sword, an arrow, a pin, &c.; while another implies the giving of any thing liquid, and a fourth, the giving of any thing broad and thin, like a piece of cloth, &c., with innumerable other specific significations.

It is quite amusing to see to what extent men will go in support of a theory; our author goes quite as great lengths as those whom he criticises for this very failing. His theory is, that the Indian languages are barren; but in order to enable the poor aboriginals to communicate their wants, he says this poverty of language is supplied by "*gesticulation only!*" Now we are assured by Mr Heckewelder, that "the Indians do not gesticulate more when they

speak than other nations do. In their *public* speeches they will, like our preachers and lawyers, enforce what they say by gestures and motions of the body and hands . . . . but in common conversation they make few of these motions, and not more, I believe, than we do ourselves." * Besides, if *gesticulation* is an indication of poverty in a language, I do not know where we should find so poor a one as the French, unless perhaps the Italian would take precedence of it. Nay, the very same language, our common English tongue, may, in this way, be proved to be less rich and copious in our Southern climate, than it is at the North; for it is undeniable, that our orators, and lawyers, and preachers of the South use vastly more "gesticulation," than is common with the phlegmatic people of the North. No; our author's theory has in this and other instances warped his judgment. He has gone on, like many "philosophical" writers, as they are called, to reason *à priori* about the Indian languages, without having furnished himself with sufficiently exact *data* for his conclusions.

I have been a little more surprised at our author's course of reasoning here to prove the "poverty" of the Indian languages, because it seems to clash in some measure with certain views which he himself entertains in the very next page. He tells us, as various other speculative writers have done before him, that the languages of the aboriginals *must* be poor, because "the range of thought" of those people "is extremely limited"—that "of abstract ideas they are almost wholly destitute!"—that the character of all *original* languages *must* depend more or less upon the wants, means, occupations, mental and physical, of the people who speak them, and we ought not to expect to find the complicated refinements of polished tongues among those of our Indians. This is the *theory;* and I agree that it is quite plausible. But what are the facts in the case?

Our author himself has not settled one material fact, which lies at the very foundation of the whole, and which he himself has intimated,—that is, whether these languages are not a part of the *remains of highly civilized nations.* He seems inclined, if I understand him, to consider them as such relics; for he makes one remark, which in truth concedes more than he is aware of,—that "these combinations give to the Delaware verbs what has been called 'the richness of their grammatical forms.'" But he adds, what will go to exterminate the elegancies and refinements of other languages, that these grammatical forms "are certainly *useless appendages*, adding no precision to the language, condensing its phraseology but little, and perplexing it with an almost infinite variety of combinations. How came they here, associated with synthetical forms in other respects simple and inartificial, and

* Heckewelder's Account, p. 115.

useless to the people by whom they are spoken? Are they *the wrecks of more polished tongues*, acquired in far different circumstances, and almost lost in the lapse of ages?" p. 80.

Let us here pause one moment.—He has just told us that we must not expect to find "the complicated refinements" of polished tongues in the Indian dialects; and yet in the next breath he informs us, that they have very complex grammatical forms, which perplex them *with an almost infinite variety of combinations*, which he ventures to pronounce "useless to the people by whom they are spoken," that is, useless to those by whom they are used! Just as I have heard a poor Frenchman upon his first arrival in our country scold and rave at the "complicated refinement," the "useless appendage," and "perplexing" distinction of our English *shall*, and *will*, *should* and *would*; and pronounce "*ex cathedrâ*," that such a distinction ought not to be tolerated in any polished language, and that he *shall* exterminate it and nobody *will* prevent him.

But I forbear any further remarks upon our author's theory. As to the general question of the copiousness or poverty of the Indian languages, I would say with Mr Duponceau,—"if it is true that their ideas are few, it is not less certain that they have many words to express them." And I want no other proof of this, than the Onondago Dictionary of Mr Zeisberger, consisting of seven quarto volumes, comprising nearly two thousand pages; upon which Mr Duponceau very justly remarks, that "there are not many dictionaries of this size." If any further proof should be required in regard to other families of these languages, I would refer the reader to the facts stated by Mr Pickering, in his *Introductory Observations* to Eliot's Grammar; where he observes, that Roger Williams pronounces the language of the Narragansets to be "exceeding copious;" and that Eliot found enough words in the Massachusetts dialects, with the exception of the substantive verb, for an entire translation of the Bible and Testament.

I have, perhaps, bestowed more remarks on this portion of our author's article, than it may seem to have required. But it was because it appeared to be the least solid of the whole, and the most likely to leave erroneous impressions. Indeed the other parts of his performance do not demand particular notice; I shall therefore pass over them as briefly as possible.

Our author expresses a good deal of dissatisfaction at the classification of the Indian languages adopted by Mr Duponceau and Mr Heckewelder. "Nor are we better satisfied," says he, "with the synoptical view of the American languages, given by Adelung in his *Survey of all the known Languages and their Dialects*." A short account of this last work was given in the North

American Review for January 1822, as our author observes;—the classification adopted by Adelung is, in substance, the same with that of the *Mithridates*, which our author refers to. They were both compiled from defective materials, without doubt; yet the authors of both might say to this reviewer, that their information was taken from *American* writers and travellers, who ought to be able to furnish correct information upon this subject. But, notwithstanding the defects of these works, many of which are pointed out by the reviewer, I believe, that the observation made by Adelung himself is not far from the truth,—"that my work will be free from errors I cannot expect; but I venture to affirm, that it gives a more complete view of the subject than has hitherto appeared, and perhaps than it has been possible to exhibit." * That these errors will be corrected from time to time there is no doubt; particularly, if succeeding writers shall be as well disposed to engage in the task as this reviewer is.

The next principal subject is the work of the well known John Dunn Hunter, upon which I have already made some remarks. I need only add here, that this fabrication is very thoroughly exposed by our author; but it is done in language, which would have lost nothing of its effect by being a little more qualified. The conduct of a foreign government must be very flagrant, and the proofs very clear, when a writer in the leading journal of our own country, in a time of peace and amity, feels authorized to use such unmeasured language as occurs in the 98th page; where the author, after stating that *Tecumthé*, and his son and brother, are outcasts from their own people, and receive "no aid from the *British* government," adds this reflection,—"Like *all* other Indians, who have placed their faith in the same trust, when their services ceased to be useful, they ceased to be regarded or rewarded!" But I forbear any further reflections upon this topic, and make much allowance for the circumstances under which this author writes.

After a brief notice, in favourable terms, of Mr *Halkett's* work, our author discusses the subject of the "aboriginal population at the era of discovery" of America. He is of opinion, that it has been much over-rated by most writers. He also considers, somewhat at large, the causes of the decrease of the Indians; and on this part of his subject he has a variety of sensible observations, in many of which I should agree with him to a certain extent. It affords me great satisfaction to find, that he gives his approbation to the efforts which the benevolent are now making to meliorate the condition of the natives, especially by means of the *missionary schools* for the instruction of the young. Nor am I displeased to see, that he does not feel satisfied with the 'gigantic plan' of

* See North Amer. Rev. for Jan. 1822, p. 132.

removing the Indians, in a body, to the country west of the Mississippi,—a plan, which has ever appeared to me impracticable. His reasoning, I acknowledge, has strengthened my own convictions upon this point; though my own intercourse with the natives had led me to the same conclusion a long time since.

"This whole subject," as he justly observes, "is involved in great doubt and difficulty." He recommends, however, as essential measures, that the laws regulating trade with them should be simplified; and—what I quote with much satisfaction, because he cannot be suspected of whining in the case—"that *neither expense nor exertions should be spared*, to prevent the introduction of WHISKEY into the country,—that the Indians should be persuaded to pass the boundary line as seldom as possible,"—that the acts of Congress should be made to protect them "when in our settlements, where they are now *lamentably exposed*, and left *without protection*,—and that hunters and trappers *should be excluded* from their country,"—in addition to which, that we should furnish them with utensils, domestic animals, seed corn, and other conveniencies of civilized life.

These are the reflections of one, whose experience of Indian habits and character enables him to think justly upon the subject; and the measures proposed (which he does not claim as his own) are such as the government has ever professed to be desirous of adopting; but, unfortunately, hitherto little success has attended their efforts.

I could have wished that our author's observations upon many other topics had been as unexceptionable as these last. If that had been the case, they would have called forth remarks of a very different kind from those which I have felt obliged to submit to the reader. But when the author was so adventurous, as not only to explore the fields of Indian philology, which was very laudable in itself, but to deal out in the most unceremonious manner his undeserved criticisms upon those who had preceded him, I could not repress my feelings at his boldness. And if I felt the same spirit towards others, and the same confidence in myself, which he discovers, I should retort upon him the language which he uses in speaking of Major Long's Expeditions,—that the history of his adventures should serve as a warning to future writers "against committing themselves by the discussion of questions affecting our aborigines,"—and that "it is not every man, who has lost sight of the flag-staff of an interior post, or who has seen a buffalo, or a muskrat," that is qualified to furnish our philologists with any "valuable" additions to the stock of their materials, or that should venture to "correct their errors."

ORIGINAL POETRY.

THE TWO GRAVES.

'T is a bleak wild hill,—but green and bright
In the summer warmth, and the mid-day light.
There 's the hum of the bee and the chirp of the wren,
And the dash of the brook from the alder glen;
There 's the sound of a bell from the scattered flock,
And the shade of the beech lies cool on the rock,
And fresh from the west is the free wind's breath,—
There is nothing here that speaks of death.

Far yonder, where orchards and gardens lie,
And dwellings cluster, 't is there men die.
They are born, they die, and are buried near,
Where the populous grave-yard lightens the bier;
For strict and close are the ties that bind
In death, the children of human kind;
Yea, stricter and closer than those of life,—
'T is a neighbourhood that knows no strife.
They are noiselessly gathered—friend and foe—
To the still and dark assemblies below;
Without a frown or a smile they meet,
Each pale and calm in his winding sheet;
In that sullen home of peace and gloom,
Crowded, like guests in a banquet-room.

Yet there are graves in this lonely spot,
Two humble graves,—but I find them not.
I have seen them,—eighteen years are past
Since I found their place in the brambles last,—
The place, where, fifty winters ago,
An aged man in his locks of snow,
And an aged matron, withered with years,
Were solemnly laid,—but not with tears;
For none, who sat by the light of their hearth,
Beheld their coffins covered with earth.
Their kindred were far, and their children dead,
When the funeral prayer was coldly said.

Two low green hillocks, two small gray stones.
Rose over the place that held their bones;
But the grassy hillocks are levelled again,
And the keenest eye might search in vain,
'Mong briars, and ferns, and paths of sheep,
For the spot where the aged couple sleep.

Yet well might they lay, beneath the soil
Of this lonely spot, that man of toil,
And trench the strong hard mould with the spade,
Where never before a grave was made;
For he hewed the dark old woods away,
And gave the virgin fields to the day,—
And the gourd and the bean, beside his door,
Bloomed where their flowers ne'er opened before;
And the maize stood up, and the bearded rye
Bent low in the breath of an unknown sky.

'T is said, that when life is ended here,
The spirit is borne to a distant sphere;
That it visits its earthly home no more,
Nor looks on the haunts it loved before.
But why should the bodiless soul be sent
Far off, to a long, long banishment?
Talk not of the light and the living green!
It will pine for the dear familiar scene;
It will yearn, in that strange bright world, to behold
The rock and the stream it knew of old.

'T is a cruel creed, believe it not!
Death to the good is a milder lot.
They are here,—they are here,—that harmless pair,
In the yellow sunshine and flowing air,
In the light cloud-shadows, that slowly pass,
In the sounds that rise from the murmuring grass.
They sit where their humble cottage stood,
They walk by the waving edge of the wood,
And list to the long accustomed flow
Of the brook that wets the rocks below.
Patient and peaceful and passionless,
As seasons on seasons swiftly press,
They watch and wait and linger around,
'Till the day when their bodies shall leave the ground.

B.

RUBY LAKE.

Near Stafford Springs, in the State of Connecticut, is a handsome sheet of water, commonly called Square Pond, but to some persons known by the more poetic name of Ruby Lake. The latter appellation it has received from the large garnets with which its shores are abundantly strewed, by the action of the waves upon the rocks which contain them. In the same neighbourhood is a beautiful trout stream, which winds through a narrow valley of a picturesque character, and in one place so narrow as to be impassable, except by wading in the channel for a considerable distance. The rocks there contain an

abundance of crystallized quartz, pieces of which fall into the water, and stud the dark stones, over which it runs. The trees also form a complete canopy overhead, and the place is one of the most singular I know. The stream is called Diamond Brook. After following its course for some distance one summer's day, I found the scene suddenly opening; and a green meadow, of about half an acre, presented itself, surrounded by hills, with a small farmhouse near the bank, and two or three old trees, and a flower garden kept with great neatness.

The following verses apply to this solitary spot. All that region was formerly subject to the Mohegan Indians, who had acquired it by conquest, and called it Wabbequasset.

No lonelier spot the bluebird's song
With cheerful echo e'er did wake;
No shadier stream the vales among
E'er wet the wood-duck's emerald neck.

No current ever purer ran
From stain of war or blood till now;
But o'er yon lake a savage man,
Dark Uncas, guides his silent prow.

Though Wabbequasset mourns her dead,
And Sannaps fight till Sachems yield;
What foe these lonely banks would tread,
Which forests shade and mountains shield?

The sun, just peering o'er the mount,
Shines on a little plain beneath;
Glitters on many a bubbling fount,
And gilds the lessening vapour-wreath.

With hearts as quiet as the stream,
Hopes bright as crystals in its bed,
The children blessed the early beam
Upon their father's cottage shed.

The trout has fled his fav'rite brake,
The duck her shady cove forsook,—
How came this gem from Ruby Lake
'Mong the bright sands of Diamond Brook?

'T is a red drop of human blood,
Shed on the shore,—the wave is dy'd,—
The foe is stalking through the wood,
Among the rocks the orphans hide.

Their mournful fate no story tells,
Yon mossy mound no legend bears,—
But there the cowslip hangs its bells,
And evening sprinkles it with tears.

AGRESTIS.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

A Manual of Chemistry, on the basis of Professor Brande's, containing the principal Facts of the Science, arranged in the Order in which they are discussed and illustrated in the Lectures at Harvard University, New England. Compiled from the Works of Brande, Berzelius, Thomson, Henry, and others. Designed as a Text-Book for the Use of Students and Persons attending Lectures on Chemistry. By JOHN W. WEBSTER, M. D. Lecturer on Chemistry in Harvard University. Boston. 1826. pp. 603.

THE title-page of this work, which we have given above, perhaps sufficiently indicates its nature and object, but these are more fully shown in the Preface, which is short and comprehensive, asserting nothing which we have not found fully verified in reading the work. "It was a leading object," says Dr Webster, "in the compilation of this volume, to put into the hands of students, a less expensive work than that of Brande or Henry, and, at the same time, to compress as much matter as possible into one volume; many of the less important substances and several instruments have been described in the form of notes." The character of Professor Brande's Chemistry has been long since well established, and two editions in England, and one in this country, are evidence of the estimation in which it is held by chemists. Dr Henry's work has been through ten editions, and each has become more voluminous than its predecessor. It was early republished in this country, with notes and additions of much value, by Professor Silliman, and has been used as a text-book in many of our colleges and similar institutions. There has been one or more editions published in Philadelphia, and the additions to the English editions have been reprinted in a separate volume, making a *third* volume to the American edition. The work has, from these circumstances, become too voluminous for convenient use, and is now to be raised from the rank of an Elementary Treatise to that of a System of Chemistry, occupying a place by the side of the elaborate productions of Thomson and Murray.

In compressing into one volume all the elementary and practical parts of Henry, and some of the theoretical views of other writers, and incorporating these with the most valuable and practical parts of Brande, Dr Webster has performed a most acceptable service. He has produced precisely such a book as was demanded in the present advanced state of chemical philosophy, containing, in addition to the essence of the writers whom we have named, very important accessions in the notices of all the late discoveries in this extensive field. He evinces a familiar acquaintance with the labours of the present distinguished chemists of Europe, and great industry and faithfulness in collecting and engrafting upon his

work, every fact and discovery of value up to the time of publication. We would especially notice the account he has given of the labours of Berzelius in regard to Silica, of Mr Bussy, M. Braconnot, and Mr Faraday, while he has not been unmindful of what has been accomplished by our own chemists.

The arrangement of the subjects is the same as that of Mr Brande, with some slight changes required by the discoveries which have been made since Mr Brande's work first appeared. The author proceeds from general discussions on the laws of chemical changes, to the consideration of the powers which produce and modify them. The individual substances, which are next brought under notice, are divided into two great classes, founded on their electrical habitudes. The excellent general rules for the analysis of minerals and organic products, are taken from Dr Ure and Dr Henry; they are amply sufficient for all the purposes of a text-book; and for more practical details the student and practical chemist are referred to more elaborate treatises, and to a volume, not yet published, containing the usual chemical tables, and "the most instructive analyses which are contained in the essays of Klaproth, and various scientific journals."

The omission of the numerous tables with which most of the chemical books are filled, we consider exceedingly judicious; it has given room for the introduction of a large quantity of practical instruction of much more importance to the student, while those who may have occasion to make use of these tables will be enabled to do it with increased convenience, by having them in a separate volume.

A deficiency in many of the works on chemistry, and especially that of Mr Brande is in experimental illustration. In the present publication this has been amply supplied. Dr Webster has rendered his volume peculiarly valuable on this account; it is in every way an experimental work; the experiments are most happily introduced and varied. In connexion with this subject, we should notice the great number of plates with which the work is illustrated; there are nine plates, containing figures of every instrument with which a chemical laboratory should be furnished; these are executed with great neatness; several forms of new apparatus are figured and described; and the arrangement of the whole is shown by a view of the interior of the laboratory at Cambridge.

The whole of the work is divided into distinct paragraphs, which are numbered continuously throughout; in the margin are given short notes of the subject discussed; these, together with a very full and copious index, greatly facilitate reference to any particular subject.

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1. A Celestial Planisphere or Map of the Heavens, exhibiting the several Constellations, the most prominent Stars, and great Circles of the Celestial Sphere, designed for the Use of Schools, and private Families in solving the various Problems incident to the Study of Astronomy. By M. R. BARTLETT. Utica, 1836. 4to. pp. 195.
2. The Description and Use of Bartlett's Celestial Planisphere.

THE ancient formation of the stars and constellations, has always been a curious subject of inquiry. Nothing is certainly known of their origin, although there can be no doubt of its existence in the remotest antiquity. Many of them are alluded to by Homer, the writer of the book of Job, and the prophets Amos and Isaiah; all of whom speak of them as being familiarly known in their time. Aratus, the astronomical poet, in his "Phenomena," mentions the whole that were known 277 years before the Christian era. This account is corroborated by Hipparchus, who asserts, that he adopted the descriptions given by Eudoxus nearly a century before. The Greek astronomers, till the time of Ptolemy, used the hieroglyphics of their predecessors, with some alterations, and with the addition of their own fabulous accounts of the constellations. Ptolemy, in his "Almagest" (a work on Geometry and Astronomy), preserved a catalogue of the principal fixed stars, and an arrangement of the ancient constellations, which not only existed long before his time, but has continued even to the present. To this list Tycho Brahé added two. About the beginning of the 17th century, the celebrated Bayer, who invented the method of designating the stars in each constellation by prefixing to them the letters of the Greek Alphabet, increased the catalogue by the addition of twelve more, formed from the "*Stellæ informes*" of the ancients, around the south pole.* Another addition of ten, selected from various parts of the firmament, was made by Hevelius about the year 1700.—Since that period the number has been further augmented by La Caille, La Lande, Bode, Halley and others. Some of the latter additions by the more modern Astronomers, have been considered as innovations, and as such, have never been inserted in the most approved works without a remark to that effect. This is as it should be, and we hope that judicious astronomers will ever oppose such alterations, as tending to embarrass the science, and create confusion between the new and old Astronomy.†

* The unformed star of the antarctic circle, would clearly indicate, that the inventors of the northern constellations resided north of the torrid zone.

† Besides the various attempts to introduce new constellations, others have been made to remodel the whole. Bayer, in 1603, published his "Uranometria," prefixing the ancient symbols. In 1627, it was republished, probably after Bayer's death, by Julius Schiller, in a new dress and title, viz. "Cœlum Stellatum Christianum" or "The Christian Stellated Heavens;" in this work the ancient hieroglyphics were set aside to give place to selections from the Scriptures; but it met with the disapprobation of astronomers, and in the succeeding editions of 1654 and 1661 the old names and figures were again restored.

Conformably with these views, Mr Bartlett has omitted nearly a a dozen insignificant asterisms, which were formerly considered as integral parts of others; as an instance, several stars that we find in the hand of Andromeda on the author's planisphere have been altered by Bode and made to form one of his own, viz. the "Glory of Frederick." The preceding remarks, we think, will fully justify us in the assertion, that by these omissions, Mr Bartlett has done nothing more, than to remove from the subject so many incumbrances.

The work presents the stellated heavens correctly projected on the plane of the equator, which divides it into two hemispheres, each of twenty inches in diameter; the whole containing about five thousand stars. After an attentive examination of the places, and relative configurations of a large number of the most important, we have found them as accurate as the nature of such a work would allow. Were this all that could be said in its favor, it would be amply sufficient to entitle it to the notice of persons who are engaged in the study of stellar astronomy. For the information of those who imagine, that the acquisition of this branch of knowledge is tedious and difficult, we would state, that a dozen evenings spent with a skilful teacher, and in the absence of moonlight, are enough to learn one hemisphere. Many of the figures are recognised at a single glance, as the northern and southern Crowns, the Dolphin, the Arrow, &c.

While we give the author all due praise for the general accuracy of his performance, we are likewise compelled to notice his errors, which, though they detract but little from its merits as an elementary work, might have been easily avoided, as that branch of astronomy whence the information could be drawn, may now be said to be perfectly accurate. We allude to several numerical errors in laying down the right ascensions, &c. of many of the principal stars. These errors we presume were made by neglecting the corrections for the precession of the equinoxes. Some of the most remarkable nebulæ are entirely omitted. No notice is taken of those in the sword of Orion and the girdle of Andromeda. The latter, during the last summer, was mistaken, by inexperienced observers, for the comet Encké. When viewed through a telescope of moderate powers, it presents a cometary appearance; but through a twenty feet Newtonian reflector, is resolvable into stars.

The Description and Use of Bartlett's Planisphere is a pamphlet accompanying the work, and had we not seen it in this connexion, we never should have suspected Mr Bartlett to be its author. Both the literary and mechanical execution are very poor. The former in many instances is glaringly incorrect in point of fact. In support of this opinion we quote the following examples:

"*Piscis Volans, the Flying Fish.*

"This is also a modern constellation, presumed to be so, because mentioned in none of the old *Books* [catalogues]. We have no account of its origin, but *expect* [suspect] it may be referred to Halley, as he has the honor of forming most of the new southern constellations."

On the authority of Dr. Hutton, we give Bayer as its author, who "has the honor of forming most of the new southern constellations," and not Halley, who formed only one that we know of—"Charles's Oak." Bayer's "Chamelion" is also referred to Halley.

To return to the planisphere; we are of opinion that of all the schemes for representing the heavens, there is none better than this. Over the common celestial globe it possesses some decided advantages, such as the ease and accuracy with which the different problems may be solved, its cheapness, portable form and less liability to injury.

We believe it is the first work of the kind ever published in this country, and as such, we hope that the author may receive a compensation, adequate to the labour he has bestowed upon it.

Rufiana; or the Poetical Sinnings of William Rufus, of Charleston, South Carolina. New York. 1826. 12mo. pp. 144.

The subjects of these poems sufficiently indicate the youth of the writer. What "men call love," and gods and romance writers the *tender passion*, seems, more than any original bent of genius, to have made him a poet. This is a delicate, and somewhat critical situation for any man, old or young, to be placed in, and the author of this volume has taken what colder and severer judgments might perhaps call the indiscreet step of publishing his verses before he was well out of it. There is one poem, however, in which he commemorates his arrival at the age of twenty one. The book also preserves his first attempt in rhyme, which does not fall so much below his other poems as the first attempts of some writers have been known to do. Indeed there are not wanting persons who look upon it as the best in the collection. They hold, *a priori*, that, being the earliest offspring of his muse, it ought, by a natural consequence, to be the lustiest and most vigorous, and they maintain, that the fact fully supports them in this theory. Several of these poems were originally written for the Charleston Courier; they were, no doubt, respectable newspaper poetry; it is probable that many of them may have found their way into the Ladies' Albums,—two of them were even originally written for an Album. Collected into a volume, printed beautifully on fine white paper, put into delicate green boards, and called by the soft name

of Rufiana, they will even now make no contemptible figure in the windows of sentimental young ladies, and on the tables of very young men, who are getting through with their poetry; places where, we hope,—for we are no ill-natured critics,—that the author will enjoy the poetic beatitude of often beholding them. The verses in this volume generally flow lightly and trippingly enough, as if conscious of no extraordinary burthen, except sometimes when they meet with an intractable stumbling-block in prosody, or are suddenly and cruelly loaded with an unwieldy meaning. The following passage will pretty well exemplify the quality of the author's poetry.

Oh fairest isle of the western seas,
  Where summer is ever glowing!
Where gently o'er ever-verdant trees,
  Cool Zephyrs are ever blowing!
Where the tall palm waves its lofty plumes,
  Bananas broad leaves are spreading!
The Guava blossoms, the Tamarind blooms,
  And the Mango its golden fruit is shedding!
Oh isle whose maidens are warm and bright
  As their own resplendent sun!
Oh isle created for man's delight—
But—

after all these fine things there comes a *but*, and what does the reader imagine it can be?

But where he brooks the tyrannous blight
  Of imbecile Bourbon!

Manual of Mineralogy and Geology, designed for the Use of Schools, &c. By EBENEZER EMMONS, M. D. Albany. 1826. 12mo. pp. 229.

THIS is a convenient little book, designed for the use of the Rensselaer School, and contains a pretty full list of all the minerals described in the latest works on mineralogy. The descriptions are mostly confined to the more obvious external characters, and these have been selected with considerable judgment. It is a book, that will be found convenient in the larger schools, where access can be had to a suite of specimens, and where the descriptions can be rendered more full by the oral instruction of the master. As Dr Emmons remarks in his preface, it is not a work to which the student can refer for the determination of a doubtful specimen of any mineral, but it will prove, we think, a convenient pocket companion for refreshing the recollection of the general appearance of minerals. As an elementary book for schools, and introductory to the larger and more extended works on a most interesting and important branch of science, we cheerfully recommend it to beginners.

The Christian Philosopher; or, the Connexion of Science and Philosophy with Religion. By THOMAS DICK. First American Edition. New York. 1826. 8vo. pp. 397.

THIS work is intended to exhibit the testimony, which the discoveries of science bear to the truths of revelation; and the display of God's wisdom, power, and benevolence in the works of creation. The author describes the grandeur of the universe, as shown in the immense quantity of matter which it contains; in the rapid motions and various phenomena of the celestial bodies; enlarges upon the boundless variety introduced in every department of the material world, and the curious mechanism of animated beings; gives a compendious view of some of the sciences more immediately illustrative of the character and purposes of the Deity; and shows the relation which the inventions of art bear to the objects of religion. Considering the size of the volume, he has contrived to compress into it a very considerable amount of information, familiar, indeed, to the man of science, but useful and entertaining to the general reader. Our readers will find the following extract interesting. It shows the great distance, to which the human voice may be made audible by artificial means.

But what has a more particular bearing on the object hinted at above, is, the experiments lately made by M. Biot, "On the transmission of sound through solid bodies, and through air, in very long tubes." These experiments were made by means of long cylindrical pipes, which were constructing for conduits and aqueducts to embellish the city of Paris. With regard to the *velocity* of sound, it was ascertained, that "its transmission through cast iron is ten and a half times as quick as through air." The pipes by which he wished to ascertain at what distance sounds are audible, were 1,039 yards, or nearly five furlongs in length. M. Biot was stationed at the one end of this series of pipes, and Mr Martin, a gentleman who assisted in the experiments, at the other. They heard the lowest voice, so as perfectly to distinguish the words, and to keep up a conversation on all the subjects of the experiments. "I wished," says M. Biot, "to determine the point at which the human voice ceases to be audible, but could not accomplish it; words spoken as low as when we whisper a secret in another's ear, were heard and understood; so that not to be heard, there was but one resource, that of not speaking at all. This mode of conversing with an invisible neighbour, is so singular, that we cannot help being surprised, even though acquainted with the cause. Between a question and answer, the interval was not greater than was necessary for the transmission of sound. For Mr Martin and me, at the distance of 1,039 yards, this time was about five and a half seconds." Reports of a pistol fired at one end, occasioned a considerable explosion at the other. The air was driven out of the pipe with sufficient force to give the hand a smart blow, to drive light substances out of it to the distance of half a yard, and to extinguish a candle, though it was 1,039 yards distant from the place where the pistol was fired. A detailed account of these experiments may be seen in *Nicholson's Philosophical Journal, for October,*

1811. Don Gautier, the inventor of the Telegraph, suggested also the method of conveying articulate sounds to a great distance. He proposed to build horizontal tunnels, widening at the remoter extremity, and found, that, at the distance of four hundred fathoms, or nearly half a mile, the ticking of a watch could be heard far better than close to the ear. He calculated, that a series of such tunnels would convey a message nine hundred miles in an hour.

From the experiments now stated, it appears highly probable, that sounds may be conveyed to an indefinite distance. If one man can converse with another at the distance of nearly three quarters of a mile, *by means of the softest whisper*, there is every reason to believe, that they could hold a conversation at the distance of thirty or forty miles; provided the requisite tunnels were constructed for this purpose. The latter case does not appear more wonderful than the former. Were this point fully determined by experiments conducted on a more extensive scale, a variety of interesting effects would follow, from a practical application of the results. A person at one end of a large city, at an appointed hour, might communicate a message, or hold a conversation with his friend, at another; friends in neighbouring, or even distant towns, might hold an occasional correspondence by articulate sounds, and recognize each other's identity by their tones of voice. In the case of sickness, accident, or death, intelligence could thus be instantly communicated, and the tender sympathy of friends immediately exchanged. A clergyman, sitting in his own room in Edinburgh, were it at any time expedient, might address a congregation in Musselburgh, or Dalkeith, or even in Glasgow. He might preach the same sermon to his own church, and the next hour to an assembly at forty miles distant. And, surely, there could be no valid objection to trying the effect of an *invisible preacher* on a Christian audience? On similar principles, an apparatus might be constructed for augmenting the strength of the human voice, so as to make it extend its force to an assembled multitude of several scores of thousands.

Oration pronounced before the Citizens of Providence, on the Fourth of July, 1826, being the Fiftieth Anniversary of American Independence. By WILLIAM HUNTER. Providence. 1826. pp. 49.

THE late celebration of the Anniversary of our Independence, seems to have called forth more than a usual number of able and distinguished individuals to partake in the festivities of the day, and to unite in doing honor to the men, by means of whom, under Providence, that independence was accomplished.

Amongst those who have done honour to themselves and their fellow-citizens on this occasion, Mr Hunter, for many years a distinguished senator from Rhode Island, an able lawyer, and well known to the literary world for his classical taste and information, delivered an Oration before the citizens of Providence, a copy of which is now before us. He has drawn a masterly sketch of those circumstances in the early history of the Colonies, which, from

their first settlement, seemed to lead irresistibly to their separation from the mother country. In the following passage, he states the folly of the attempt to maintain British power over governments and people like ours.

Yet what miserable pedantry, what presumptuous dealing with futurity, what a moon-stricken fatuity it was, what a fortunate fatality, that ministers and statesmen should have contrived the slight frame-work of a legal corporation, to hold in restriction the expansive power of freedom, springing from principles of such seed and root, planted in such a rich and congenial soil, cherished by such suns, fanned by such breezes, cheered by such auspices. It was as absurd, as to plant the acorn of the British oak in a flower vase, and bid it not burst its boundaries, but to remain stationary in pretty dwarfishness, as if it were not destined to strike its root to central earth, to shoot with aspiring top to heaven, with every zephyr that waved, every storm that shook and shattered its branches, but tending to fix, and corroborate, and elevate it. After giving us this frame-work of institution, fortunately they let us alone. They traced not our steady progress to stability, to prosperity, to self-estimation. In the deep solitudes of our forests, apart from all the world, we were secretly and silently preparing the massy materials of the edifice of our future freedom and renown. We were nourished by neglect. Our limbs expanded the more freely, because they were not kindly swathed and swaddled. Our blood flowed in a purer and stronger current, because we were unpampered by dainties, and our sleep that of a giant, training for combat, was the sweeter and sounder, because unblessed by the lullabies of affection, of the lenitives of skill and care.

After speaking of the general causes of the Revolution, Mr Hunter, with a patriotic pride, examines more minutely the causes which led to the early efforts of Rhode Island in the struggle against the mother country, the freedom of religious worship, and the effects of their democratic charter;

You never would have been, you never could have been, what you have been, and what you politically are, unless for the principles of religious, always followed and accompanied by those of political freedom. They both were equally and simultaneously adopted and consecrated by your institutions. Your ancestors always had a spirit, and a daring, an original, unaccommodating character, an insurgency and elasticity of mind, which cannot otherwise be accounted for. We deny it not. We always have been in Rhode Island reproached for heresy, both religious and political; which word heresy, being rightly interpreted, unless I have forgotten my Greek, from which language the word is derived, means the atrocious offence of the assertion of a man's own opinion. The spirit of these remarks emanates from our legislative history. The charter ultimately procured by the talents, address, and good fortune of Clark, under the form of a corporation, has all the essentials of a well-tempered democracy. The king, after he granted it, virtually excluded himself from any interference with it. He had no viceroy, he had no *veto* on the laws of the colony. We endured not his

actual or constructive presence. We felt his power hardly at all, his influence rarely, but always benignantly and beneficially. In the first session of the Assembly under that charter, and indeed before it had passed through all the ceremonies of a royal grant, we anticipated and settled that topic of controversy, which a century afterwards convulsed the world. In March, 1663, in an act for declaring the privileges of His Majesty's subjects, it was enacted, "that no tax shall be imposed or required of the colonies but by the act of the General Assembly."

After relating the affair of the sloop Liberty on the 17th of June 1769, that of the Gaspee on the 9th of June 1772, and the capture of the cannon at Newport in 1774, he alludes to the services of the State in the war of the Revolution, and to the efforts which she made, both by sea and land, in support of the common cause. These facts are generally interesting, and we can easily pardon the exultation with which they are dwelt upon by the orator. On such occasions, it is very proper that the inhabitants of the State, or even of the town in which the celebration takes place, should be reminded of the peculiar merits of their ancestors. The spirit of union and mutual attachment is strengthened by a common pride in the glory of their forefathers. The oration is spirited and eloquent, and entitled to a respectable place among the addresses which have been called forth by our national jubilee.

An Address, delivered at the Opening of the Twelfth Exhibition of the American Academy of the Fine Arts. By M. CHARLES PATTERSON. New York. 1826. 8vo. pp. 46.

WE are highly pleased with the appearance of a discourse upon the Fine Arts, so respectable as this of Mr Patterson. It exhibits good taste in composition, correct principles of criticism, and a just appreciation of the merits of the subject. The author enters at some length into the reasons, why modern art has been so inferior to ancient, in correctness of design, beauty and grandeur of form, and force of expression. One of these causes, is the athletic exercises of the Greeks, which furnished the sculptor with noble models of beauty and strength. Another is the developement and mutual action of varied talent, amid the strenuous competitions of free states, where genius of every sort was honoured as the ornament of the commonwealth, and the lofty sentiments of the poet and the orator kindled a corresponding glow in the breast of the artist. The close imitation of nature is also suggested as a cause, which had no small influence in producing this superiority. The moderns, it is said, have been led away by visions of ideal beauty, and, in the attempt to embody their abstractions, have produced only constrained and lifeless forms. The moral influence of the Fine Arts is well described. The visible expressions, which they

afford of the conceptions of lofty minds, refine the taste, purify the imagination, and strengthen the highest principles of our nature. They augment the love of man to the place of his birth, by associating forms of grandeur and beauty with the ties of civil and domestic affection.

Our own country, it is said, seems to possess peculiar advantages for the cultivation of the Arts. There is the same spirit of competition, the same opportunity of free expression allowed to every species of talent, as in the flourishing periods of the Grecian and Italian republics, when the glory of the Arts was highest. We are a business people, it is true, but genius has always put forth its greatest strength, where the business of life was carried on with the greatest activity. The circumstances of our confederation afford occasion for an honourable rivalry between the artists of the different states. That there is no deficiency among us, of the talent required to excel in the Fine Arts, Europe can testify. To these remarks of Mr Patterson, we will only add, that the means of calling this talent into exercise, are rapidly increasing with the accumulation of wealth; and the necessity of affording opportunity for the cultivation of taste, is becoming apparent in the increasing number of men of fortune, who, being exempted from the cares of business, are left without proper occupation in a society, where business engrosses all other men's attention.

German Popular Stories, translated from the Kinder und Haus-marchen, collected by MM. GRIMM, from Oral Tradition. Boston, 1826.

THIS translation comprises but a small portion of a large body of tales, collected by two German gentlemen, from various parts of their country, and taken principally from the mouths of the peasants. It is a lively record of popular superstitions, and of the popular imagination, exhibited in the form of nursery tales. These are told with all the simplicity of the credulous times, in which fairies and witches, giants and dwarfs, were objects of as implicit belief as the truths of religion; and beasts, rocks, and trees mingled freely in the business of men, and talked and acted as scholarly and wisely as the best of them. It is amusing to trace the coincidences, which collections of this sort exhibit, between the popular fictions of different nations. The Germans as well as the English, have their Tom Thumb, Jack the Giant-killer, Little Red Riding-hood, stupid giants, and sharp-witted dwarfs, who with little variation of circumstance, play the same parts, as when they first captivated our childish imaginations. The same fictions prevail through the north of Europe, and on examining the tales current in its southern quarter, a surprising

resemblance is found, notwithstanding the difference in the character of the inhabitants; and even the fictions of the East display the same striking family-likeness. In the original, the coincidences between the German and English stories are much more numerous and obvious. The translators, to render their work interesting, have selected those tales, which had most of the attraction of novelty. If their object was merely to make an amusing collection for children, perhaps they acted wisely. It appears to us, however, that in this matter-of-fact age, when one great object in education seems to be, to present nothing but truth or facsimiles of it to young minds, parents will hardly deem these tales of magic transformations, rational beasts, golden men, and trees bearing diamonds, suitable vehicles of amusement for their children. It is to readers of mature age, who delight in investigating the character and wide diffusion of popular fictions, that works of this sort are most likely to be interesting, and the most interesting parts will be those that remind them of the tales, which they have heard in the nursery. Considering this translation as a means of introducing readers of this description to the valuable collection of MM. Grimm, we are pleased with its appearance; but, regarded as a source of amusement for children, we think it of very doubtful value.

INTELLIGENCE.

State of Persia. The king of Persia is understood to have the whole community entirely at his disposal. He may exalt or degrade, fine, imprison, maim, or put to death his subjects, without rendering a reason or being answerable for the act. The exercise of his power is limited only by the degree of security it may occasion him, or, in other words, by the danger of provoking insurrection or conspiracy. The population of Persia is thinly scattered over an immense territory, and broken into many small and distinct communities, as well by the nature of the country, as by the difference of habits existing among the people, partly settled and partly migratory. They are chiefly employed in agriculture, and possess few facilities for communicating with each other. They are surrounded, on all sides, by independent barbarians or barbarous monarchies; have little acquaintance with European governments; know even the British but as conquerors, hardly more scrupulous than their own shahs; and are therefore safe from the contagion of examples unfavourable to legitimacy, or likely to teach them a mode of combining together for mutual protection against a government, that exists but to oppress. They have not even the doubtful advantages of an aristocracy, a political hierarchy, or a standing army; and the peasantry are barbarously ignorant. These causes have made its inhabitants, though a

lively and ingenious people, ignorant of any difference between political and natural evil, the passive slaves of a government, which ranks in their eyes with the cholera morbus, or any other irresistible infliction incident to humanity.

The Dead Sea. The Dead Sea has been usually represented as much more buoyant than other seas. The degree of this buoyancy is variously stated, and, of course, must depend on the specific gravity of its waters. This has been found by experiment, considerably to exceed that of any other sea-water. This excess must of course be produced by its holding in solution a greater quantity of saline matter; and Dr Marcet's experiments have proved, that, whereas in five hundred grains of sea-water, the greatest weight of residuum after evaporation, is 21·2 grains, the residuum in the same quantity of the waters of the Dead Sea, amounted to 192·5 grains.

Use of Coffee in France. The use of coffee was introduced into France by an ambassador from the Porte, who arrived at Paris in 1669, and rendered himself a great favourite by his politeness, wit, and gallantry; persons of rank, especially ladies, visited him; to them he gave coffee, and thus a bitter and black beverage, which, prescribed by a Frenchman, would have been rejected with disgust, became a favourite and fashionable liquor, simply from the circumstance, that it was presented by a Turk of wit and gallantry. In 1676, the number of coffee-houses in Paris was so great, that it was deemed necessary to form the coffee-house keepers into a company, with peculiar ordinances for their regulation. One very beneficial consequence resulted from the general and fashionable use of coffee in Paris. In the seventeenth century habits of intoxication prevailed, even among the highest classes, who were not ashamed to frequent the *cabarets* in parties, for the purpose of degrading debauch. Louis XIV. in vain exerted his influence, and appealed to the love and respect of his subjects for their grand monarch, to put down this practice. What he could not do, the coffee-houses accomplished. The *cabarets* were deserted by men of rank and letters; the coffee-houses became the places of their resort, and many literary works of celebrity were planned or composed there. Humboldt computes that the quantity of coffee, now annually consumed in Europe, amounts to 116,971,000 pounds, and that the consumption in France is 230,000 quintals.

Use of Tobacco in England. Smoking was the first mode of taking tobacco in England; and before the beginning of the seventeenth century, this was deemed one of the accomplishments of men of high breeding and spirit. From them, it soon descended into common use; and when king James wrote against it, it was customary for women, as well as men, to smoke after supper. When the children went to school, they carried in their satchel, along with their books, a pipe of tobacco; this seems to have served them instead of breakfast; at the hour set apart for this meal, every one laid aside his books, and lit his pipe; the master smoked with the scholars, and taught the inexperienced how to hold their pipes. People went to bed with pipes in their mouths, and rose in the night to light them. The use of snuff seems to have been very general in Howell's time; in one of his letters, he says, "The serving-maid upon the washing-block, and the swain upon his ploughshare, when they are tired with labour, take out their boxes of smutchin,

and draw it into their nostrils with a quill." This mode of taking it, whence, in old plays, we read of a spoonful of snuff, is still customary in the Highlands; but there, a small spoon is generally appended to the mull or snuff-horn. In the Archæologia, there are engravings of two ancient snuff-boxes; they resemble flat, circular smelling-bottles; the stopper screws in; it has a spoon at the end of it, like that used in a cruet for Cayenne pepper.

Indian Blow-pipe. When the Macoushi Indian, who dwells near the Essequibo river, in South America, goes out in quest of the feathered race, he takes his blow-pipe, which is a reed from ten to eleven feet in length, of an uniform thickness throughout, without knot or joint; this delicate tube is encased in another made of palm-branch, to preserve it from bruising. The arrow is from nine to ten inches long; it is the nerve of the leaf of the Coucousite palm, hard, brittle, and pointed as sharp as a needle. With this blow-pipe, the Indian, by a puff of his breath, will send an arrow to the distance of three hundred feet. The least scratch of the poisoned weapon secures his prey in the course of three minutes. Indeed a stupor is said to take place almost immediately after the wound has been given.

Lead on the Mississippi. The quantity of lead, made on the right bank of the Mississippi, between the mouths of the Missouri and Illinois, is very great. There arrived at New Orleans, in the various forms of pigs, bars, and shot, during the two years, which ended on the first day of October last, 7,500,000 pounds, exclusive of the great amount consumed in the states and territories bordering on the Mississippi, Missouri, and Ohio.

Canals. In the Delta of Egypt and the Plains of Babylon, are to be traced the vestiges of the first canals which were constructed. Primarily they were merely small channels cut for the purposes of agricultural irrigation. Ultimately, they were enlarged, and became subservient to navigation. They were generally straight excavations of one level. In Venice and Holland, similar canals were early made, and it was not till towards the close of the fifteenth century, that locks were invented by the brothers Dominico. The first canal in which locks, aqueducts, tunnels, and, in fact, all the modern improvements were introduced, was that of Languedoc, commenced in 1667, and finished in 1681. In 1747, the Duke of Bridgewater commenced his canal, which was finished in 1776. This successful experiment was speedily followed by numerous companies, and within fifty years, more than a hundred canals have been made in England, the total extent of which is two thousand six hundred and eighty-two miles, and cost upwards of one hundred and thirty-two millions of dollars, which yield an average income of over ten per cent. on the investment, and many of them a much greater profit. In Russia, since the accession of Peter the Great to the imperial throne, inland navigation has been so far extended, that goods can be conveyed from the frontiers of China to St Petersburg, a distance of four thousand four hundred and seventy-two miles, with a land carriage of only sixty miles; and from Astracan, on the shores of the Caspian Sea, through a tract of one thousand four hundred and thirty-four miles. In Great Britain, inclined planes have been substituted for locks and tunnels, to pass elevated ridges, on various lines of canals, and one is now constructing in New Jersey, as an experiment.

Law Abridgment. There is now publishing in London, a work, entitled, "A Practical and Elementary Abridgment of the Cases argued and determined in the Court of King's Bench, Common Pleas, Exchequer, and at *Nisi prius*, and of the Rules of Court, from the Restoration in 1660 to Michselmas Term, 4 George IV.; with important manuscript cases, alphabetically, chronologically, and systematically arranged and translated: with copious notes and references to the year books, analogous adjudications, text writers, and statutes, specifying what decisions have been affirmed, recognised, qualified, or overruled: comprising, under the several titles, a Practical Treatise on the different branches of the Common Law. By Charles Petersdorff." Such a work, if well executed, must be of great advantage to the legal profession.

Burning-Glasses. Lenses of a large diameter are able to melt metals in a few seconds, on which common fires, and even glass-house furnaces have produced no effect. M. Villette, a Frenchman, nearly a century ago, constructed a mirror three feet, eleven inches in diameter, and three feet, two inches in focal distance, which melted copper ore in eight seconds, iron ore in twenty-four seconds, a fish's tooth in thirty-two seconds, cast iron in sixteen seconds, a silver sixpence in seven seconds, and tin in three seconds. This mirror condensed the solar rays seventeen thousand two hundred and fifty-seven times, a degree of heat which is about four hundred and ninety times greater than common fire. A globular decanter of water makes a powerful burning-glass; and house furniture has been set on fire by one incautiously exposed to the rays of the sun.

Different Religions. The number of the inhabitants of the earth may be estimated at eight hundred millions at least. Five hundred of which may be assigned to Asia, eighty to Africa, seventy to America, and one hundred and fifty to Europe. With regard to religion, they may be estimated as follows;

Pagans	490,000,000
Mahometans	130,000,000
Roman Catholics	100,000,000
Protestants	43,000,000
Greeks and Armenians	30,000,000
Jews	7,000,000

Effect of Lightning. Lightning has been known to restore the blind to a temporary enjoyment of sight. Mr Campbell, a Scotch gentleman, who had been blind for several years, was led by his servant one evening through the streets of Glasgow, during a terrible thunder-storm. The lightning sometimes fluttered along the street, for a quarter of an hour without ceasing. While it lasted, Mr Campbell saw the street distinctly, and the changes which had been made in that part by taking down one of the city gates. When the storm was over, his entire blindness returned.

Ancient Painting. A fresco painting has been discovered at Pompeii, representing an eruption of Vesuvius, and several processions at the foot of the mountain. Cape Miseuum and the city of Naples are in the back ground. This picture indicates that Vesuvius was formerly of prodigious height, and that the frequent eruptions have lowered it considerably; it also shows that the Somma did not exist, or rather, that it formed a part of Vesuvius, and has been separated from it by a volcanic eruption.

Napoleon a Chinese Idol. An English missionary in Java, states, that in the village of Buitenzorg, in the vicinity of Batavia, where there is a colony of two thousand Chinese, he found, in one of their houses, an European picture of Bonaparte, in a gilt frame, to which the people offer incense and pray night and morning.

Foresight. A letter from the Isle of France, quoted in a Calcutta paper, gives an account of the ability of some of the inhabitants of that place, to discover ships at sea, some days before they appear above the horizon, by means of the inverted image in the air, which is accounted for by the common theory of reflection. One of these individuals makes a daily report, which is seldom incorrect. He has been known to announce a ship dismasted, five days before any other person could discover her, and, not long since, announced the approach of two brigs unaccountably lashed together. In three days after, a ship with four masts made its appearance, a thing which had not been seen for twelve years before. Several pupils are learning the art, who can see the object, but cannot distinguish clearly their particular character.

Insect Longevity. The following is extracted from a communication by Mr Marsham to the Linnæan Society. "Mr J. Montague, on going to his desk, in the Office of Works, at Guildhall, observed an insect, which had been seen by his brother in the early part of the day, endeavouring to extricate itself from the wood which formed part of the desk; he carefully released it from the cell, and it proved to be the *buprestis splendens* of Fabricius, full of strength and vigour. The desk had been fixed in the office twenty-two years before, and was made of fir wood, imported from the Baltic. That the insect existed in the wood before the desk was made, was proved by the fact of the channel formed by the insect having been transversely cut."

Forgery in France. Forgery has become so alarmingly prevalent in France, in consequence of the facility which the chemical discoveries of late years have given to its commission, that the minister of justice at Paris, has been induced to request the French Academy to devise some plan for the prevention of the crime. The forgers first discharge from notes or drafts every thing but the stamp and the signature; then, by an easy process, restore the paper to its original consistence and colour, and afterwards insert what they please, and circulate the falsified documents. Attempts are making to counteract this evil, by one of two means, either by the invention of an ink capable of resisting every chemical agent, or by adding, in the manufacture of the paper, some ingredient, which the process employed by the forgers may indelibly colour.

Island Discovered in the Pacific. We mentioned, in a former number, the discovery of an island in the Pacific, in latitude 7° 10′ south, and longitude 177° 33′ 16″ east, from Greenwich, by a ship in the service of the king of the Netherlands. It is said to resemble a horse-shoe in form, and to be about eight miles in extent. The natives, some of whom were armed with long sticks, were very numerous. The land had a pleasing aspect, and appeared fertile. The number of natives assembled on shore was estimated at about three hundred. They were of a dark copper hue, tall and well made, generally over six feet high. The women were also very stout. Some of the people were tatooed. They were naked, except some covering made of leaves. A few others

had some cloth of cocoa bark wrapped round the waist. The heads of some were adorned with feathers. Their conduct appeared very fierce and wild, and they contrived to steal every thing within their reach. The boat-hooks soon disappeared, and they even attempted to tear the oars from the hands of the boat's crew. An old man with a white beard, and of respectable appearance, carrying a green bough in his hand, was at their head. He continually kept singing some monotonous song in a melancholy tune. They bartered some cocoa-nuts, and some of their tools against some old handkerchiefs and empty bottles. When the ship's boat put to sea, a few musket shots were fired in the air, but the natives showed no symptoms of fear, and appeared unconscious of the effects of European arms. No canoes were seen in their possession, nor did they attempt to approach the ship, although the weather was excellent, and the sea very calm.

Canal of the Pyrenees. The royal canal of the Pyrenees, a plan of which has been presented to the French government, is to continue that of Languedoc from Toulouse to Bayonne. The surveys are all finished; and extend over more than seventy leagues, in the whole of which there is not a single obstacle of importance. The canal will pass through five fertile departments. A free navigation from the Mediterranean to the Western Ocean will be the immediate consequence.

Ancient Greek Inscription. In the neighbourhood of Rome, an ancient tomb has been lately discovered, with a Greek inscription, in such tolerable preservation as to allow of the following fragments of translation; "My country is the immortal Rome; my father is its emperor and king. My name is Alicilla, the beloved name of my mother. Destined for my husband from infancy, I leave him, in dying, four sons approaching to manhood. It is by their pious hands, that I have been placed, still young, in this tomb."

Russian Canals. The government of Russia has given orders for the immediate construction of canals to unite the following rivers; namely, the Moskwa and Volga; the Scheksna and the Northern Dwina (which will make a direct communication between the ports of Archangel and St Petersburg, and open a conveyance for indigenous productions towards the Baltic); and lastly, the Niemen and the Weichsel, across the kingdom of Poland.

Conveyance of Dust by Wind. We mentioned, in a former number, an instance of the transportation of minutely divided matter to a great distance seaward, from the coast of Africa. M. Schabelski, an eminent Russian traveller, gives the following account of a similar event. "On the morning of January the twenty-second, 1822, at two hundred and seventy-five nautical miles from the Western coast of Africa, in latitude twenty-three degrees, north, all the cordage of the vessel was observed to be covered, on the windward side, with a dusty substance, resembling ochre in its reddish colour. The powder was very soft, and coloured the skin red. When the cords were examined by the miscroscope, it appeared like long rows of globules, touching one another. It was a northeast wind which caused the phenomenon, and only the parts exposed to the wind were covered, there being no trace of the powder on the opposite side."

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THE UNITED STATES

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REVIEWS.

Memoirs of the Board of Agriculture of the State of New York. Published by Authority. Vol. III. Albany. 1826.

WE learn from the Preface of this interesting volume, that it closes the labours of the Board of Agriculture of the State of New York; the law for the encouragement of agriculture, under which the board was created in 1819, having expired by its own limitation. Much regret has been expressed on this subject, and not a little surprise, that the legislature of that State, a body for the greater part formed of practical farmers, and men intimately connected with the landed interest, should not have continued those laws for a longer term, seeing that they were so generally popular, and that the governor, in his annual message to the legislature, had, for the two past years, recommended their revisal, on the ground of the extraordinary benefits which the State had already received from them. We have so often heard those benefits acknowledged, not to say witnessed them, that we with pleasure lay before our readers an abstract of the history of the laws, and give the explanation, furnished us by a friend well informed on this subject, of the probable reasons which have governed the legislature in permitting them to be suspended at the present time.

Previously to their enactment in 1819, a few agricultural societies were already established in the State, in Columbia County, at Cooperstown, and at Duanesburgh. These had been instituted by a few spirited individuals among the landed proprietors, resident

in the interior, with the hope of somewhat raising the depressed character of agriculture as a vocation. Want of skill contributed equally with want of capital, to keep down a very useful and most respectable class of men, the gentlemen farmers. The few then to be found in the State, pretending to that character, as they had been brought up in habits of indulgence, and were unable to make the productions of their farms defray the charges of cultivation, were gradually going out of existence by the force of that powerful engine, the bond and mortgage. Soon after the late war, and when the frenzy of speculation had brought the commercial cities to a point of great distress, the whole community seems, by common consent, to have for the first time turned its attention to the fact, hitherto overlooked through its too great obviousness; that to require a great many good things from others, by way of exchange, we must first possess a great many good things of our own. All eyes were suddenly bent upon agriculture as the sure foundation of commerce. The governor, the legislature, all men uniting in this opinion, the act of April 7th, 1819, was passed, granting an appropriation of ten thousand dollars per annum, for the term of two years, to be distributed in the different counties of the State of New York, *pro ratâ*, for the promotion of agriculture and domestic manufactures. By this act, also, a Board of Agriculture was created, for the purpose of superintending the general system, and publishing from time to time the results obtained from the County Societies.

This board was organized January 10th, 1820, at a very full meeting of the presidents of the County Societies. General Stephen Van Rensselaer, of the city of Albany, was unanimously chosen president, and Mr Featherstonhaugh, of Duanesburgh, appointed chairman of the committee to report a plan for the government of the institution. This plan was subsequently adopted. In March, 1820, the duration of the law was prolonged to six years, a period which has just expired.

By the act of 1819, each County Agricultural Society, upon filing an affidavit with the controllers, of having raised by voluntary subscription, a sum of money for the purposes expressed in the act, was entitled to draw an equal sum from the State treasury, provided it did not exceed the amount *pro ratâ* of the general fund of ten thousand dollars; the joint amount of which was to be distributed by the officers of the County Societies, in agricultural and manufacturing premiums at the annual fairs of their respective societies. A detailed statement concerning the objects for which the premiums were to be conferred, was to be delivered

annually to the board of agriculture by the presidents of the County Societies, to be published and distributed annually by the board, at the expense of the State. These were the principal provisions of the act.

The board immediately published a circular, addressed "to the Officers and Members of the County Societies," laying before them the reciprocal duties they had engaged in, and calling upon them, in animated terms, to co-operate with the board in a vigorous discharge of them. The following passages mark, with some force, their earnestness in the pursuit of their great object.

In concluding this address, the Board of Agriculture again urges upon the presidents and officers of the county societies the importance of the regular and systematic manner of the communications now asked of them. It is the intention of the board, not only to collect every kind of useful information, and to diffuse it in the most extensive way, but to combine and arrange all the features of this deeply interesting subject, into a form sufficiently methodical, to constitute a perspicuous record of its transactions, and which may exhibit an interesting picture of all the resources of the State, in their annual progress.

The board looks with much anxiety to the personal efforts and intelligence of the respective presidents and officers of the county societies, to aid it in the accomplishment of the great object for which it has been constituted. It must be obvious to the officers here alluded to, that the power of the board to diffuse that useful kind of knowledge, upon which the welfare of the people of this great State depends, must arise in a great measure from the perfect ability and willingness of intelligent persons connected with the farming interest, to aid the effort now about to be made, to raise the agricultural interests of this State to the consideration they are entitled to, as the true source upon which all other human pursuits must rely for success.

From the novelty of the experiment, and probably from the unwillingness of persons to communicate their opinions for publication, at the end of the first year, the board found itself in possession of scarcely any materials of an original character; and as the General Committee was by the statute imperatively obliged to publish at that time the first annual volume, some embarrassment seems to have been felt. Upon this occasion, it appears, that Mr Featherstonhaugh was solicited, and consented to relieve the General Committee from this inconvenience, as well as circumstances would admit of. On this subject we shall extract a passage from his introductory letter to the president of the board.

When the subject of the publication of an annual volume was under discussion by the General Committee, and various methods were suggested of filling the volume, in consequence of the insufficiency of the communications from the County Societies, I took occasion to observe to some of the gentlemen of the committee, that, since we were obliged by circumstances to eke out our first annual volume with detached essays from such sources as might be accessible to us, it would probably be more useful to present the agricultural public at once with a treatise on agriculture and rural economy; wherein the principles upon which a successful agriculture must always depend, should be familiarly explained, and their results be applied to the present condition of agriculture in the State of New York. I thought, that in a work of this kind, the nature of the connexion betwixt chemistry and agriculture could be unfolded to that class of plain men, who think much, although they say little, perhaps from being conscious of a defective education. Many individuals of the laborious classes of the yeomanry, are unable to penetrate beyond the first intellectual difficulty, for want of slight assistance in the elementary parts of knowledge; and I have often witnessed the extraordinary elasticity of minds from which the pressure has been judiciously removed. This suggestion of mine led to many conversations, which terminated in my consenting to furnish for the first annual volume of the Board of Agriculture an essay after the plan alluded to, upon agriculture and rural economy. It is my intention to throw into a familiar form, the amount of the knowledge I have acquired on the subject, from books and from a somewhat extensive practice; not conducted, however, I confess, under the most auspicious circumstances; for with little previous knowledge that way, I commenced my operations in what was scarce better than a wilderness, and without an intelligent neighbour of any description to correct my errors by his advice or example. I feel that it would have been incalculably advantageous to myself, if proper views on this important subject had been thrown in my way when I first settled in the country, somewhat in the form in which I now contemplate to offer my own to the public.

Of the merits of the first volume, which is now before us, we do not assume to be adequate judges. It consists of about four hundred pages of original matter, from the pen of the gentleman we have named, and of some miscellaneous papers, the principal ones being a Geological Survey of the County of Albany, communicated by the Agricultural Society of that county, to the Board of Agriculture; some correspondence on agricultural subjects, betwixt General Washington and Sir John Sinclair, first President of the British Board of Agriculture, and a very interesting

agricultural Address to the Albemarle Society, by the ex-president James Madison, at that time president of the Agricultural Society of Albemarle County, in Virginia. If the testimony, however, of strangers may be deemed conclusive as to its value, we would state, that, amongst the many quarters where it was favourably received, the Royal and Central Society of Agriculture at Paris was so well satisfied with the report of one of their committees on the subject, that a very complimentary letter was written by their order, accompanied with the present of a copy of the whole of their works, consisting, we believe, of betwixt thirty and forty volumes. The evidence of this very liberal conduct on the part of the French Royal Society, is found at page 526 of volume second of the Memoirs of the Board. This second volume was published in the year 1823, and consists chiefly of original communications from American farmers, with some extracts from British works on agriculture. The third volume, being of a similar character, was published in the spring of the present year, and will be the last, the functions of the Board of Agriculture having ceased with the expiration of the laws for the improvement of agriculture and manufactures.

As we have before stated, those laws are generally considered to have been very beneficial to the agricultural interests of the State by which they were enacted, and to have more than repaid the amount of the appropriations which their administration has cost to the public treasury. The general solicitude for their revival is to us a sufficient evidence of this fact, apart from the numerous proofs more immediately within the knowledge of agricultural people. It would seem, then, to want some explanation why a legislature, two thirds of which, at least, are generally practical farmers, should have hesitated to revive laws so immediately connected with their own interests, which have been beneficial at home, and gained honour broad.

We understand that it is mainly to be attributed to the imperfection of the laws, which were altogether experimental in the State. Popular as the measure was, of extending legislative encouragement to agriculture and manufactures, an impression had been made at a particular period during their existence, that some of the officers of the County Societies had not acted impartially in the discharge of their duties; that indeed the laws had been inadvertently framed in such a manner, as to give the wealthy farmers an advantage over the poorer ones. How far this was true, we do not know, but attempts were made to repeal the laws on this alleged account, without success; from which it may be

inferred, that the allegations were not sustained, and that they very probably came from disappointed candidates for premiums at the agricultural fairs. In the spring of 1825, when the laws expired, a concurrent resolution was passed by both houses, calling upon the Board of Agriculture to report to the legislature, whether it would be expedient to continue the old laws, or to amend them in such a manner as would be acceptable to the farming interest. The report was made, but, owing to the multiplicity of public business, the legislature rose without acting upon this and some other important matters. At the last session, in 1825–6, the friends of the system were divided in opinion; some were for reviving the old laws with some modification, whilst a report was made to the senate, by their committee on agriculture, recommending the establishment of an agricultural college or school; but the vast schemes for internal improvement engrossing the attention of the legislature, the session passed over without any law being enacted. And as far as we are informed, we see no reason to believe, that the friends of agricultural improvement will have better success in future. The great subject of internal improvement is agitating the State of New York in every direction; lateral canals from numerous districts, to be connected with the great canal, will be loudly called for; the proposed State road, too, will concentrate all the force of the counties adjoining the Pennsylvania and New Jersey lines. All these projects look to appropriations out of the public treasury for their execution, and combinations will undoubtedly be made of a very powerful character, in and out of the legislature, to ensure their success. For these reasons, and because it is a very troublesome concern to carry a bill through the legislature, we doubt whether we shall hear any more of laws for the improvement of agriculture and manufactures. In two particular ends, the late laws have been pre-eminently useful to the agricultural interests. By combining the efforts of the most numerous, and not least important of all the classes of society, for their common improvement, the effect has certainly been produced of elevating the vocation of farming, both with its followers and with the public at large. Before these laws were enacted, the condition of a farmer was held in very low estimation. It is not so at present; a very great change has been wrought in this respect; there is not a town in the State at present, which cannot boast of some well educated men, who are proud of their calling, and who exercise it to great advantage, following the most approved methods of cultivation, and introducing the most profitable breeds

of animals. Such men are invaluable; for common farmers are instructed by example rather than by precept. The other end which has been obtained by these laws, is the introduction of so many valuable breeds of animals into the State; and this, deeming it to be entirely owing to the emulation produced by these laws, we consider an ample return, of itself, for the whole amount of the appropriations which the public treasury has furnished during their existence.

A broad foundation being now laid for future improvement, both in agriculture and rural economy, by means of the successful administration of the late laws, we think the State of New York has greater reason for rejoicing that those laws have existed, than for regretting their suspension or entire discontinuance. If the older counties are unwilling that their agricultural societies should cease to exist altogether, with such a mass of information as has been now obtained, they can be re-organized with great ease, and under much more promising circumstances than heretofore; nor is there any serious obstacle in the way of the zealous friends of such a measure, for under the old system every member of a County Society was obliged to subscribe a certain sum of money to entitle him to the privileges of membership, and those voluntary subscriptions even now will raise a moderate fund adequate to keeping up that lively emulation for pre-eminence, which has distinguished many of the farmers of the County Societies.

Upon the whole, we think there is much to admire, both in the policy of the late laws, and the happy and successful administration of them. They are universally felt to have been very honourable to the State. Nor, indeed, ought it to be forgotten, that the gentlemen who were at the head of the administration of those laws, and to whose unpretending and untiring efforts much of their success is due, have acted from first to last without any compensation for their services, which have been attended with great expense, and much personal trouble and responsibility.

The volumes we have thus slightly noticed, will be a lasting memorial of their claims to public consideration.

A Letter to the Hon. Isaac Parker, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the State of Massachusetts, containing Remarks on the Dislocation of the Hip Joint, occasioned by the Publication of a Trial which took place at Machias, in the State of Maine, June, 1824. By John C. Warren, M. D. Professor of Anatomy and Surgery in Harvard University, and Acting Surgeon in the Massachusetts General Hospital. *With an Appendix of Documents from the Trial necessary to illustrate the history of the Case.* Cambridge. 1826. 8vo. pp. 142.

The exact purpose of this publication will be best understood by stating briefly the circumstances which have occasioned it. Mr Lowell of Machias, several years since, was injured by a fall from his horse. His surgeons, Drs Faxon and Hawks, at that time pronounced that the head of the thigh bone was dislocated, and attempted its reduction; in which operation they professed to have succeeded. Still, upon rising from his bed, at a considerable distance of time after the injury, he finds himself a cripple, and is subsequently informed by his attendants that his bone has been in some way again put out of its place.

In about three months he came to Boston, and applied to the author of the pamphlet before us, who after a careful examination, concluded that the bone was dislocated downward and backward into the ischiatic notch; and that nothing could be done for its relief, on account of the time which had elapsed since the accident. Still, at the request of Mr Lowell, he was admitted into the Massachusetts Hospital, and after an examination by the board of consulting surgeons, who concurred in opinion with Dr Warren, he was subjected to the application of pullies and an attempt was made to reduce the bone, which, it is hardly necessary to say, proved unsuccessful.

After this operation at the hospital, the patient submitted to two other attempts at reduction, and then returned home with the intention of prosecuting his original medical attendants for damages. He mentioned this purpose to Dr Warren, who very promptly and earnestly dissuaded him from such a course; assuring him that his case was one of great difficulty, and one in which men of the best medical knowledge might fail. Still he persisted, and after gaining a verdict in two trials, lost it in a third. It is the published report of this third trial which has given immediate occasion for the publication of Dr Warren.

The plaintiff apparently grounds his action upon the opinion of the Boston faculty; concluding that if his bone be still out

of joint, it probably never was put in place; or, if put in place and again dislocated, that proper measures were not taken to remedy this second injury. Accordingly his suit is brought for ignorance, malepractice, and neglect, and is supported by the testimony of Dr Warren and the consulting surgeons of the Hospital in regard to the state of the limb; and by that of some other persons in regard to the charge of neglect.

The principal point in the defence is an attempt to throw discredit upon the opinion of Dr Warren, rather than directly to support the character and practice of the defendants. With this object the counsel for the defendants indulged himself in a strain of ridicule and sarcasm not only of the individual himself against whom his efforts were directed, but against every thing with which he was connected, and undertakes to show at once the absurdity of the opinion advanced by him, and the folly and cruelty of the operation performed at the Hospital. Many of the passages in this argument exceed even the license of speech allowed to lawyers (and that is saying a great deal), and contain bold reflections upon professional character, which it is, to say the least, foolish and presumptuous for any man to express who is not better acquainted with the subject.

To sift the matter down to its real merits, however, and separate the argument of this speech, from its declamation, the defendants attempt to show, that no such dislocation can take place as that which Dr Warren describes this to have been, and that probably Mr Lowell's hip was not dislocated at all.

With regard to the first point,—the possibility of such a species of dislocation as that which Dr Warren describes this to be, he makes out his case so clearly as hardly to admit of a doubt. He shows that such an accident is possible from the nature of the structure of the parts; he adduces in confirmation the opinion of various authors;—and finally appeals to actual dissections to show that such an injury has taken place, has continued without remedy during life, and has been the subject of examination after death.

It is true that there are some writers and those of great eminence, who have expressed their belief that this species of dislocation does not occur. But this opinion has been founded either upon anatomical reasoning, which leads them to judge that such an event is not, from the structure of the parts, likely to happen; or upon the circumstance, that in the course of a very extensive experience, they have never known it to happen. Yet it is obvious that the opinions of a great many individuals formed

in this way, are not, taken all together, sufficient to outweigh the testimony of a single competent observer, who affirms that he has himself known this accident to occur. To show indeed of how little value is a judgment with relation to such a subject, when founded upon a prior reasoning alone, or the experience, however extensive, of any single individual, it will be only necessary to state, that a surgeon of very extensive experience and considerable reputation, Benjamin Bell, speaks with hesitation, of the existence of a species of hip dislocation which other surgeons regard as the most common of all. The following remarks give a very fair explanation of this difference of opinion among surgeons.

The difference of opinions among surgeons, eminent for their knowledge and experience, requires some explanation. This will be found, I apprehend, in the fact, that surgical practitioners of great experience are naturally inclined to the belief, that they must themselves have witnessed every important variety of accident and disease, and that what *they* have not seen does not exist. What other explanation can we put on the assertion of Mr Bell, that the dislocation on the Dorsum ilii has rarely been witnessed, and that the dislocation in the foramen ovale is the most common species? Or how else can we understand that Mr Sharp, the greatest English surgeon of his time, and highly esteemed at the present day, should have doubted the existence of any hip dislocation? Mr Benjamin Bell did the same in the earlier part of his practice, till experience led him to a different conclusion. Such errors will teach us to view, with a reasonable degree of caution, the round and positive assertions of practitioners, who would put down established opinions by their own solitary experience; and they also shew us the necessity of exercising our own judgments in a fair comparison and estimate of opposing facts, as observed by different authors.

The impossibility of this species of dislocation was the point principally laboured by the defendants' counsel, who, like the generality of his brethren of the robe, seems to be in a most unhappy state of ignorance with regard to the nature of medical evidence, and presumes that, having proved his general law, the conclusion in this particular must necessarily follow,—and that Mr Lowell, of course, could not have undergone this species of luxation. Dr Warren however, having made it appear that this kind of accident may happen and has happened,—it then becomes a question whether it happened to Mr Lowell. With regard to this, there are three different opinions.

First,—that of the original attendant surgeons, who pronounced that there was in the first instance a dislocation, if we recollect right, into the foramen ovale, which was reduced,—and that there was also a subsequent or secondary dislocation, whether of the same kind or not does not appear.

Second,—that of Dr Nathan Smith, who believes that there was no dislocation; and, seems to insinuate either that the head of the bone was driven through the socket! or the pelvis fractured; and that the lengthening of the limb was produced by the preternatural contraction and relaxation of the muscles situated about the hips.

Third,—that of Dr Warren; and the symptoms described bear him out in the opinion which he formed of the nature of the derangement, at the time he saw Mr Lowell, and he expressly avoids giving an opinion as to the situation of the parts immediately after the accident.

It is worthy of remark in connexion with this statement, that although the opinion of Dr Smith, or the deponent A, as Dr Warren chooses to call him, is relied upon by the defendants' counsel to prove that Dr Warren had mistaken the case, yet that it is in fact more at variance with the opinion originally formed by the defendants, than that of Dr Warren himself. Dr Smith says that there has been no dislocation, and is now no dislocation; the defendants say that there was at first a dislocation, that there was a second dislocation which was not reduced, and of course they must admit that there is now a dislocation. What can be more diametrically opposed than these two opinions? Whilst on the other hand, that of Dr Warren is not absolutely incompatible with the correctness of that of the defendants at the time it was formed; for as will be seen by an extract made below, it is possible that in the act of attempting reduction, the head of the bone might have passed from the foramen ovale into the ischiatic notch, or the bone, having been put in place by the first operation, might have been, by some accidental occurrence, "a fit" for instance, again thrown out of the socket and lodged in a different direction. If Dr Smith is right, the defendants were indeed most egregiously mistaken. If Dr Warren was right, they were also *probably* mistaken, but not certainly,—and at any rate it was a mistake far less discreditable to them than the other.

There is no essential point, as it seems to us, which Dr Warren does not make out as clearly as the case admits; and there is abundant evidence every where, of the disposition manifested by him to avoid casting any reflection upon the practitioners

originally in attendance upon the case. His advice was given very decidedly against the institution of the suit; his evidence was wrung from him very unwillingly and only constrained by the necessary legal measures,—and he constantly admits the difficulty there is in deciding upon the nature of such accidents, and the liability of all surgeons to occasional error in their opinions.

But notwithstanding this forbearance, it seems that both before and since the trial, his character has been made the object of constant and systematic attack in newspapers published in the town where the defendants reside, originating apparently in them or their friends.

These productions were, it should seem, printed for a more extensive distribution, than the ordinary circulation of the paper. Many copies were sent me, mostly by anonymous friends, and a considerable part of them I found to be printed with one blank side of the newspaper, additional copies of this series being struck off for a more enlarged diffusion of their contents, and, as I have since learned, distributed by the defendant. I might add, that I have received from Maine, through the post-office, anonymous writings of an abusive character, probably the production of medical students, who had been deceived as to my opinions and dispositions, by the pamphlet of the attorney, and the newspaper publications. They afford additional proof of the disadvantages resulting from publications of the description of the report of this trial; since its allusions and insinuations seem to encourage and support those, who are ready to improve any opportunity to attack the reputation of others.

These publications, it appears, contain a great variety of misrepresentations, and are in a strain altogether disgraceful to any member of a liberal profession, and from the specimen given in Dr Warren's book, they are but little likely to mend matters for the defendants. For, if we take the history of the case with the statements made by this writer, he places the surgeon originally attending Mr Lowell in one of the following predicaments;—

First, that by the attempt made for reduction, the bone was actually reduced; yet, when it afterwards got out of place *in a fit*, or in some other strange way, the defendant, though seeing the disordered state of the limb, made no attempt to restore it to its place.

Secondly. Or that when the reduction was attempted, the head of the bone was not moved from the situation in the foramen ovale, where, it is said, he found it.

Thirdly. Or that at the time of the grating and change of direction of the limb, the head of the bone was slipped from the foramen ovale to the ischiatic notch, or os ischium.

I wish not to be understood as bringing either of these charges; but to leave the matter to the decision of the newspaper writers among themselves; and, in settling the question, they must take particularly into view what Sir Astley Cooper has said on the third case. "Although a dislocation in the foramen ovale may be occasionally reduced by attempts made in a very inappropriate direction, yet the following case will show the mischief which may occasionally arise from an error in this respect. I once saw the following instance. A boy, sixteen years old, had a dislocation of the thigh into the foramen ovale; he was placed upon his sound side, and an extension of the superior part of the thigh was made perpendicularly. The surgeon then pressed down the knee, but the thigh being at that moment advanced, the head of the bone was thrown backward, and passed into the ischiatic notch, from which situation it could not afterwards be reduced."

Here we leave this business, and trust that all the parties concerned will also find it for their interest to let it subside. It seems to us, however, unfortunate for the circulation and effect of his book, that Dr Warren should have permitted it to extend under his hands to so great a size. It is to be recollected that the impression made by the trial has been more upon the public than the faculty, and that this answer should have been such as to excite, but not fatigue, the attention of unprofessional readers. This we should fear would not be the case. The essential points of the case are buried and obscured under a mass of details, which have only a very indirect bearing upon it. This, although a very good method of propping up a bad cause, is injurious to a good one. A moderate-sized pamphlet, of thirty or forty pages at most, might have been made to contain every thing which is really important in the present publication, and would have been more easily read and understood, and more widely circulated.

Hints to My Countrymen. By An American. New York. 1826. 12mo. pp. 216.

We have been not a little puzzled, in setting out with our remarks on this book, to determine what is its subject, in order that we may give the expected information to our readers. In one page we meet with a disquisition on natural history, in the next with a tale in verse; in one place we have an eulogium on silver spoons and yellow buttons, in another a speculation on morals; and the story of a Yankee trick is followed by a disser-

tation on the benefits of education. Then we have a sermon, a tale of witchcraft and *gramerye*, maxims of political and domestic economy, an analysis of the New England beverage, flip, traits of New England manners, anecdotes of the Revolutionary war, exhortations to the cultivation of fruit, useful directions on husbandry, and finally an account of the good city of Boston, with which every Bostonian ought to be pleased. In short, there is almost as great a variety of topics handled in this little work as in any of the famous books of Dr Kitchener. Not that we esteem it the less on account of the miscellaneous nature of its contents; for we come to the end of it a good deal entertained, sufficiently lectured and instructed, and no way fatigued. It is evidently the production of a man of knowledge and observation, whose reflections have taken a practical direction, who speculates judiciously on those common things and common occupations, which make so much of the substance of our welfare and comfort, and who sits down to write upon these subjects just as he would talk about them to his neighbours. The desire of making his work useful to all classes of readers, has led him to adopt a familiar, colloquial style,—a quality of which there is perhaps rather an excess. The ambition of sprightliness is sometimes a little too manifest, and there is now and then a sprinkling of those odd phrases, which have been called Yankee wit. We are not, however, disposed to find much fault with these things, provided they make the work more acceptable to those for whom it was intended, as it is possible they may, although we doubt whether they are necessary even for this purpose. At all events, we are very willing to overlook them for the sake of the good sense and good nature which pervade the work.

It is obvious, that a production of this kind cannot be the subject of a regular analysis. To know what is in the book, our readers must see the book itself; for it bids defiance to that industrious and ingenious class of reviewers, who make abstracts and abridgments of the works that come under their notice. We shall, however, give a sample or two of the author's Hints. The following is a gentle one, on the subject of lotteries.

That this frightful source of vice and misery among the people should not only be tolerated, but receive the sanction of governments, in a country where there is certainly no want of good sense upon general subjects, would seem incredible. Now that they are discontinued in England, what will Mr Peel, Mr Huskisson, and Mr Canning say for the innocence of the young republic! Our friends over the water have solid virtues after all. Mr Walsh, in

his letters on France, states, that a hundred suicides annually are there attributed to the lotteries. Colquhoun, in his "*Police of the Metropolis*," has shown the frightful extent of the evil. New York, to her everlasting honour, has in her amended constitution prohibited them. The lotteries, however, granted in this state before the constitution was amended, still continue in existence, with what *right* deserves inquiry. But what can a single state do to eradicate the mischief, while other states send forth these poisons? The plea for them is, that they are sources of *revenue!* Can any policy be more wretched than to attempt to gain revenue from those very vices which governments create? A committee in parliament, as long since as 1808, used this language; "That the foundation of the lottery system was so radically vicious, that your committee feels convinced, that under no system of regulations that can be devised, will it be possible for parliament to adopt it as an efficacious plan of revenue, and at the same time divest it of all the evils of which it has hitherto proved so baneful a source." M. Say, in his admirable treatise on *Political Economy*, says, "When a government derives a profit from the licensing lotteries and gaming-houses, what does it else but offer a premium to a vice most fatal to domestic happiness, and destructive to national prosperity? How disgraceful is it to see a government thus acting as a pander to irregular desires, and imitating the fraudulent conduct it punishes in others, by holding out to want and avarice the bait of hollow and deceitful chance?" The mischief in the *country* is not glaring and palpable, because in the country there is little of the traffic, and therefore it is that the people are not well informed upon the subject. They may rest assured, however, that the vices of the cities will in the end reach them. They are not aware of the *enormous profits* made by the offices, nor of the host of persons thus supported in worthless employments, which bring not a dollar to the state. Indeed the whole system is fraud, extravagance, and waste. No mode of gaming is so *expensive*, and this expense, too, must fall, in the main, upon unthinking, unhappy wretches, who know not how to take care of themselves. A friend informed me that he went often to the most famous gaming-house in Paris, and one of the most noted in the world. The Allies were then in Paris. There he often saw General Blucher, and always at the game *rouge et noir*, red and black, from the colour of the table. He carried his Napoleons in *rouleaux*, done up like cartridges, ten or twenty in a cartridge. It was reported that this sport more than once emptied his pockets, which, however, were filled again by his master the king of Prussia. Be this as it may, when the rich game and lose, they usually have resources left, but the loss to the *poor* is irretrievable. A calculation, demonstrating the chances of the table, gave a profit of two per cent. only in its favour. Twice that

amount would probably not pay the profits of the lottery offices here, and that is in addition to the usual allowance of *fifteen* per cent. to the lottery. This species of gaming, so fatal to the poor and unthinking, is a deep disgrace to the age in which we live, and still more so to a country which boasts of its virtue and good sense.

What the State of New York has done towards the prohibition of lotteries, will be to her honour, or not, just as her subsequent conduct is of a piece with this beginning. It is already time for her legislature to inquire, to use the expression of our author, by what right the old lotteries continue in existence. This is a duty which she owes to herself quite as much as that of incorporating new banks and digging new canals. It is curious to see how these lotteries have lately multiplied themselves into a sort of omnipresence, till some of the streets in a certain great city seem converted into rows of lottery shops, and boys stand at every corner to thrust printed schemes and advertisements of lucky lottery offices into the hands of the passers by. It realizes the poetic fable of the sorcerer Kehama, who attacked and entered the city of Yamen by all its gates at once. It was thought by the convention, who framed the present constitution of New York, that these beneficial institutions would soon expire by the operation of the conditions on which they were granted; but at present they not only seem destined to endure to an indefinite longevity, but to be endowed with a new youth and a tenfold measure of activity. Never, we believe, was this species of gambling carried on to a greater extent than at present. It might also be well to inquire, how it happens, that, while the tickets of lotteries, granted by other states, are forbidden to be sold in the State of New York, we have advertisements staring us in the face as we walk the streets, offering for sale the tickets of the "Dismal Swamp" Lottery, and other foreign lotteries of equally ominous name. Is it that unlawful gains are the most tempting, or that public opinion is not strong enough against these institutions to cause the laws to be respected? One would imagine, that the sight of the crowds about the lottery offices, upon what are called the drawing days, which follow fast upon each other, would be sufficient to set public opinion right on this subject. Any man, if he has not forgotten his own nature, who beholds the great number of people, evidently in extreme poverty, besieging the doors of these places, on such occasions, and observes the despair of those who had paid their last penny for a ticket which now brings them a blank, must, we think, go away not only with an exalted admiration of the philosophy of those

who make their fortunes by the folly of these poor creatures, but with some pretty distinct convictions of the necessity of putting an end to this evil.

The author is a patriot, of course, and a warm admirer of the institutions of his country, and the character of his countrymen. In one instance, however, it seems to us, that this admiration is rather misplaced. In one of the articles in the volume, entitled "The Book Merchant's Tour," we have a supposed traveller relating his journeys through the United States. In passing through one of the streets of New York, at ten o'clock in the evening, he hears the cry of "Watch! watch!" "Now a cry of watch! watch!" says the traveller, "brings together all the standers or goers by, whether engaged in that useful calling or not. I being one of them, proceeded to the place whence the voice issued, and was asked by a coloured man at the door, if I belonged to the watch. At this moment one of those city guardians stepped up, and was immediately recognised by the tenant of the premises. 'Here,' said he, 'take this man to Bridewell, I will lodge my complaint against him in the morning.' No sooner said than done; off he went in legal custody." The traveller then enters into a conversation with the coloured man, who gives him, to be sure, a very good reason why he gave the white gentleman in custody to the watchman, of which, however, that obsequious guardian of the night has not heard a single word, he having instantly gone off with his charge to the watch-house. This incident inspires the traveller with "pleasing ideas of liberty and safety," and he goes on his way rejoicing. Now as we learn that the work which we are reviewing, is to be republished in London, we protest against its being supposed by the English reader, who in his simplicity may understand this account literally, that the watchmen in New York are so much the servants of the coloured people, that they will carry either a white or a black man to the watch-house on their simple direction, without further explanation; and that in this respect a coloured man actually possesses no more power than an individual of unmixed European descent.

In the following passage, however, we must admit, that the author has shown a good reason for his complacency in the manners of his countrymen; the facts here mentioned are a most beautiful exemplification of that purity of morals, which is cherished by the principle of self-respect pervading all classes of people among us, and which, we hope, will preserve us to a late period in a good degree from the vices and miseries which seem entailed upon older communities.

As the purity of the female sex is, perhaps, above all others, the redeeming individual and national virtue; no fact that can illustrate the character of our country, can be deemed out of place in a work like the present. The author intended to have inserted this note, where he has heretofore mentioned the town of *Chelmsford*, in the state of Massachusetts. At that place, as is generally well known, there is one of the most flourishing cotton manufacturing establishments in the United States. It sprung into existence about four years ago. Seventeen hundred thousand dollars have already been expended there, and in that time there has been an increase of the population, of between three and four thousand. This establishment belongs to gentlemen residing in Boston, and in that neighbourhood. There is not in it *a single individual* whose skill is deemed important to its success, whose professional knowledge has been gained in a foreign country. Those who have the best means of forming an opinion, informed the author, that labour was not dearer than in similar establishments in England, for which they assign these reasons; first, that a greater proportion of the work is performed by females here than there; second, some kinds of work are done by females here, which are not done there but by men; third, the regular, orderly, and virtuous character of the labourers. This establishment arose out of a similar one at *Waltham*, which is about eight miles from Boston. That at Waltham, commenced its operations soon after the late war. In 1825, there were about four hundred girls employed in it. These girls are generally the daughters of farmers in the neighbouring country; they earn more money in the cotton mills, than they could elsewhere. Many marry; when this takes place, they leave the establishment. When the business commenced at Waltham, the girls were made to understand, that the slightest suspicion entertained of the regularity of their condnct, would be the ground of dismissal, and that public opinion in the society, must constitute its law. That if a female was found in company with a man at an unseasonable hour, she would be discarded without further inquiry or proof. Upon one occasion a girl fell under suspicion from having violated this rule; her companions instituted a complaint against her; she came to the superintendent with tears in her eyes, averring her innocence; he told her he was sorry for her case, if such was the fact, but that there was no help for it. Down to the time mentioned in 1825, in a society of four hundred girls, but a single case of gross misconduct ever came to the knowledge of the managers of the institution. Surely, without vain boasting, our country may be proud of a fact like this. We cannot but deplore the existence of vice any where, and more especially in a country so interesting as England; and when we mention the notorious profligacy of the females in the manufacturing establish-

ments in Manchester, it is but to warn our countrymen of the necessity of moral and intellectual cultivation, and to teach them, that the final and certain prosperity of all institutions, will be found to have no other sure basis.

The hint contained in the following characteristic passage is not only wholesome but savoury, and we cannot but express our hope, that the owners of the soil, who are of course proprietors of the greater part of the sunshine, will make haste to profit by it.

Truly, I had almost forgotten the purpose for which I commenced this epistle; it was, however, to acknowledge the receipt of the *French* fruit trees, which you have been so good as to send me, and which I brought home on the top of the coach. The bark of the trees looks just like what I suppose the king means, when he talks of "beautiful France." Oh that we could make the fruits common here also among the people! what an increase of *temperance* would there be! The fruits were given for the labourers as well as others; they can *afford* to eat them; and as you once well observed, a man who has the industry and taste to raise a peach or a grape, in our latitude, and in our vallies, where they will often flourish, is fit to talk to a king. Was there ever a finer sun for ripening most of the fruits, than we have? In England the sun is not so hot; and when the peach is shown in the shops in the neighbourhood of the Royal Exchange, the Nantucket boys (as they tell me), who live upon a cold, bleak island, where it is not raised, and who go upon, and over the water, as naturally as young ducks, are sometimes asked half a crown for it. Carraccioli, the Venetian ambassador, swore that he had eaten no *ripe* fruit in England, but *roasted apples*. This, however, cannot be quite true, for we know that they have some fine fruits. Gentlemen who have lived at Paris, say that the peaches have not prettier blushes there, and that they are not more delicious than here. I cannot but think that the grapes, the peaches, and the other fruits, are the cause of there being so many laughing people in France; and, what is of great moment to us, so few *drinking* people there. The *blush*, what can that signify to a man working in the dirt? some will exclaim. The blush which comes and goes upon the labourer's chaste daughter, can he say that he does not admire that? Next to the blush that comes and goes, is that which *stays* upon the peach.

The account of the tame Irishmen kept in Boston, will amuse the reader. "The Bostonians," says our author, "are very quiet and orderly, soft in their speech, their voices low and gentle;" and in the passage which follows, he makes the Boston

Irish no less so. We hope there is no reason to suspect that they are any more so. We have heard of riots lately in Boston,—not of Irish riots,—but of riots among the peaceable Yankee population, who had taken it into their heads to pull down the houses of their equally peaceable Irish brethren,—a very innocent diversion, no doubt, but, we believe, contrary to statute.

The *Irish* in Boston! I looked at them too; there are said to be about sixteen hundred. Now an Irishman in New England is like a cock on a strange dunghill. A tame Irishman, that has been caged for a while, I love; he is even the more interesting for having once run wild; just as they say in the Circus, the best horses are made of those that at first were "clear devil." Then again, at *home* he is a *persecuted* man, and that is reason enough why an *American* should love him. He is obliged to say *his* prayers, as they are written in a book for him by strangers; and if he will not do that, he must live in a hovel, sleep on straw, feed upon potatoes, and be left out of the account when God's reasonable creatures are considered. Oh! the liberty of mind and action! how soon it furnishes a man with a good warm house, a clean bed, sound meat when he is well, good wholesome broths when he is sick; how soon it makes a Christian and a gentleman of him.

Could you have believed it? That softly way which the Boston people have of talking and walking, and doing every thing, the Irish have actually caught. They do not run about the streets at night, with a fiddler at their head, and a dozen base women at their heels, yelling and screaming like so many Indians at a war dance. During the whole time that I was there, I never stumbled over a drunken Irishman in the streets, nor saw one take a stake out of his cart, and knock down his horse for not drawing a load which was beyond his strength. Should he do so, I verily believe, that the Boston people would draw a horse-skin over him, with mane, tail, and hair all on, harness him in a cart, and put him on the road; indeed, I am not *sure* that they have not a law authorizing the magistrates to inflict such a punishment; if they have not, I am certain they ought to have.

I inquired particularly about the Irish, of your friend ——, who has the true spirit of American liberty about him, in thought and deed; thorough-going, and who does not hate any man, because he was born on the other side of the Neck—nor an Irishman, because he lights his candles when his father dies. "Sir," said he, "with the aid of their venerable pastor and friend, Bishop Cheverus, we have tamed the *Irish* in Boston; they are as well behaved as our own people of this class. In this country, we must instruct them, we must educate them; bring them into the Ameri-

can fold, and not let them herd together, as is too often the case, in dens. We cannot afford here to support a single vicious man; for he eats as much as another, is always a dainty dog, that will refuse a crust; and then again, by theft and robbery, destroys what would support three of your country children, if they are only kept clean, and allowed to eat but three times a day after they are two years old, which is the true way of bringing them up."

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1. *An Oration, delivered on the Fourth of July*, 1826, *at Boston.* By JOSIAH QUINCY. 8vo. pp. 30.
2. *An Oration, pronounced before the Republicans of Boston, the Fourth of July*, 1826. By DAVID L. CHILD. 8vo. pp. 40.
3. *An Oration, delivered at Cambridge, on the Fiftieth Anniversary of American Independence.* By EDWARD EVERETT. 8vo. pp. 51.
4. *An Oration, delivered in Salem, on the Fourth of July*, 1826. By HENRY COLMAN. 8vo. pp. 23.
5. *An Oration, delivered on the Fourth of July*, 1826, *at Northampton.* By GEORGE BANCROFT. 8vo. pp. 26.

WHOEVER considers the state of our literature, must perceive, that occasional addresses form one of its most important branches. This arises from the character of our people and of our institutions. We are young, engaged in active business, and not arrived at well defined divisions in the departments of intellectual labour. The men of talent, who are called upon to supply the intellectual wants of the community, are toiling like others in the bustle of life; they cannot devote themselves to long secluded study; they are obliged to condense their thoughts in haste, and throw them off in the shape of popular addresses. Moreover, our free institutions make the people the source of power. Rank and influence spring from their favour, and authority consists mainly in the direction of their will. Hence arises the necessity, which has been felt by men of talents in all free states, of coming directly before the people, to minister to their intellectual gratification. From these and similar causes, occasional addresses occupy a distinguished place among the departments of our literature, and contribute greatly to form the taste, guide the opinions, and increase the information of our people. Moreover, as their immediate object is the people's approbation, they are fair indications of the degree

of mental cultivation, which exists in the community. It becomes, therefore, the duty of our critical journals to bestow a share of attention on the principal productions of this class. Those which the late celebration of the anniversary of our Independence called forth, are superior to the common cast of Fourth of July orations, as befitted the occasion of our national jubilee.

The first on our list is that of Mr Quincy. This oration is written with spirit and a high tone of patriotic feeling. The literary execution, also, is very creditable to the author, considering that it was composed in haste, and amid the pressure of his numerous and arduous duties, as Mayor of Boston. Mr Quincy eloquently eulogizes the feelings which supported our ancestors at the period of the Revolution; shows that the same spirit had prevailed from the first settlement of the country, and vindicates the fathers of New England, of the first and second generations, from the charge of enthusiasm. The following extract will enable our readers to judge of the character of this performance.

Of a similar type is the self-denial, to which they submitted, and the hazards, which they voluntarily incurred, for the sake of that principle. By submission, they would, in their own time, have enjoyed peace, secured plenty, attained external protection under the shield of Great Britain, and in the gradual advance of society, they had reason to expect to arrive, even in the colonial state, at a very elevated and enviable condition of prosperity. On the other hand, what were the hazards of resistance? The untried and not to be estimated perils of civil war; "a people, in the gristle and not yet hardened into the bone of manhood," to rush on the thick bosses of the buckler of the most powerful state in Europe; the one most capable of annoying them; without arms or resources, to enter the lists with the best appointed nation on the globe; destitute of a sloop of war, to wage hostilities with a country whose navies commanded every sea, and even their own harbours. In case of success,—the chance of anarchy and the unknown casualties attending a new organization of society. In case of failure,—exile, confiscation, the scaffold, the fate of some; to bear the opprobrious names of rebel and traitor, and to transmit them to a disgraced posterity, the fate of all.

What appeals to selfishness! what to cupidity! what to love of ease, to fear, and to pusillanimity! But our fathers took counsel of a different spirit—of the pure, ethereal spirit which glowed and burned in their own bosoms. In spite of the greatness of the temptation and the certainty of the hazard, they resisted; and the front ranks of opposition were filled, not by a needy, promiscuous, unknown, and irresponsible crowd, but by the heart, and mind, and strength, of the colony; by the calm and calculating merchant; by the cautious

capitalist; by the sedate and pious divine; by the far-looking, deep read lawyer; by the laborious and intelligent mechanic. We have no need to repeat names. The entire soul, and sense, and sinew, of society were in action.

The spirit of our revolution is not to be sought in this, or that, individual; nor in this, or that, order of men. It was the mighty energy of the whole mass. It was the momentous heaving of the troubled ocean, roused, indeed, by the coming tempest, but propelled onward by the lashing of its own waters, and by the awful, irresistible impulse of deep seated passion and power.

In this movement, those, who were foremost, were not always those of most influence; nor were the exciting causes always the most obtrusive to the eye. All were pressed forward by the spirit, inherent in the community,—by the force of public opinion and sense of duty, which never fell behind, but was often in advance of those, who were called leaders.

The event has shown that our fathers judged rightly in this movement; that their conception was just concerning their means and their duties; that they were equal to the crisis, in which Providence had placed them; that, daring to be free, their power was equal to their daring. They vindicated liberty for themselves. They transmitted it to us, their posterity. There is no truer glory, no higher fame, known, or to be acquired among men.

How different would have been our lot, at this day, both as men and citizens, had the revolution failed of success, or had the great principle of liberty, on which it turned, been yielded! Instead of a people, free, enlightened, rejoicing in their strength, possessing a just consciousness of being the authors and arbiters of their own and their country's destinies, we should have been a multitude, without pride of independence, without sense of state or national sovereignty; looking across the ocean for our rulers; watching the Atlantic sky, as the cloud of court locusts, tempted by our greenness, came, "warping on the eastern wind;" waiting on the strand to catch the first glimpse of our descending master; some transatlantic chieftain; some royal favourite; some court sycophant; sent to govern a country, without knowing its interests; without sympathy in its prospects; resting, in another hemisphere, the hopes of his fame and fortune. Our judges coming from afar. Our merchants denied all commerce, except with the parent state. Our clergy sent us, like our clothes, ready made; and cut in the newest court fashion. None but conformists allowed to vote. None but churchmen eligible. Our civil rights subject to crown officers. Our religious, to a foreign hierarchy, cold, selfish, vindictive, distant, solicitous about glebes and tithes, but reckless, among us, of the spread of the light of learning, or the influence of the Gospel.

The next address is that of Mr Child. In this, are set forth the solid advantages of our government, over other systems more showy, but less perfectly constituted, and the causes which have co-operated with our free institutions, in producing the present flourishing state of our country. Among these, are the absence of privileged classes, and the consequent necessity of exertion to procure respectability and influence; our descent from the freest nation in Europe, at a period of intense thought upon the great problems of social and religious wellbeing; and the rapid progress of scientific invention and discovery, during the time of our growth, which has not only added greatly to our physical comforts, but has roused men's intellects, and kindled a spirit of inquiry, which has gone deeply into the question of civil rights, and the species of political institutions best fitted to secure them. The commencement of this oration will impress our readers favourably.

If the goodness of governments were to be estimated by their splendour, we should have little reason to boast of that which our fathers erected, and of which our fathers' fathers laid the deep foundation. But true wisdom has never been more distinguished by the extent of its benefits, than by the simplicity of its means. Our political, like our religious institutions, admit little of the ostentation of festivals and gala-days, little of the pomp and circumstance of foreign pageants; we do not wear the variegated robes, the ribbons, stars, and garters which shine in the holiday shows of older, and, as some say, wiser nations; we are not attached to their toys, nor dazzled by them. "The mountain-nymph, sweet Liberty," needs not the aid of foreign ornament; she requires no heavy panoply for defence, no meretricious finery for allurement. She is so beauteous in herself, and so benign in her benefits, that she wants not, and never shall want, hands to defend, and hearts to adore her. We will not, however, dispute with our brethren about tastes, if indeed this involve not something graver than a matter of taste; we are willing that they should prefer the forms which they have, to the substance which we offer; but we will combat the assertion, whether made at home or abroad; that our institutions, political and religious, are too simple, too intellectual, and too severe to take a strong and lasting hold on the affections of men. If these institutions preserve in a higher degree than was ever known before, public order and private security; if they afford the most perfect protection to honest industry, if they furnish the strongest incentives to the cultivation of knowledge and virtue; if under their fostering power the meanest men, meanest not in talents and endowments, but in the gifts of fortune, may go forth from the lowest, and raise himself to the highest order of human

beings; if he may pass by the only divine right, that of talents and integrity, from the cornfield to the halls of the capitol, from the plough to the presidency,—if such be the substantial blessings of these institutions, then we will rejoice on the anniversary of their birth, on the fiftieth return of this hallowed morning; and we will perform, with sincere devotion and rapturous enthusiasm the sublime and grateful solemnities of this august and joyous jubilee. We will break forth in songs and honours to the illustrious founders of our freedom; in hymns and ascriptions to the Almighty and Universal Mind, who inspired them with the wisdom and fortitude to begin, to pursue, and to complete so vast and excellent a work; excellent we call it because we have found it so; because we find ourselves, our friends, and our neighbours enjoying a protection, a tranquillity, a prosperity, and above all opportunities for intellectual improvement and pleasure which we have not seen under other laws, and in other lands. No excisemen infest our towns and cities, no bandits our mountains, no reverend robbers decimate our flocks and our sheaves; no idle and loathsome vagrants swarm in our streets and public walks, no maimed victims of selfish ambition supplicate in our highways; above all no pampered, heartless, mercenary soldiers intrude their odious presence, and their instruments of terror and of blood into our public assemblies.

Mr Everett's Oration, though less elaborately finished than some of his former addresses, is distinguished for eloquence, and for large views of the nature and effect of our political system. He eulogizes the disinterestedness of our fathers, in sacrificing their own ease to the establishment of principles, on which depended the welfare of their posterity; the wisdom they displayed in the strife of argument, which preceded the strife of arms; the importance of our declaration of independence, as marking the era of the introduction of the true principle of government, substituting the will of the people in the room of force, as the foundation of rule, and inculcating the great doctrine of equality in the room of monopoly, which had characterized every former system; the immediate consequence of which has been a vast increase of happiness flowing from the exercise of privileges, from which the mass of the people were before excluded. Moreover, the necessary result of the dependence of government on the popular will, is, that the public welfare must become the chief concern of the ruler, and that all those energies will be directed to the prosperity of the nation, which had been before employed in the aggrandizement of the sovereign. Wars, therefore, which have generally sprung from the vanity and ambition of princes, which are hostile to the interest of the subject, and exist

for the most part in opposition to his will, must cease, or be greatly diminished, when that will has become the main spring of government. The orator concludes with a display of the effects which our example has produced, and is producing, on the world. We extract the passage showing the inconsistency of wars with the republican system.

But it is not merely an extension to all the members of society, of those blessings, which, under other systems, are monopolized by a few;—great and positive improvements, I feel sure, are destined to flow from the introduction of the republican system. The first of these will be, to make wars less frequent, and finally to cause them to cease altogether. It was not a republican, it was the subject of a monarchy, and no patron of novelties, who said,

> War is a game, which, were their subjects wise,
> Kings would not play at.

A great majority of the wars, which have desolated mankind, have grown either out of the disputed titles and rival claims of sovereigns, or their personal character, particularly their ambition, or the character of their favourites, or some other circumstance evidently incident to a form of government which withholds from the people the ultimate control of affairs. And the more civilized men grow, strange as it may seem, the more universally is this the case. In the barbarous ages the people pursued war as an occupation; its plunder was more profitable, than their labour at home, in the state of general insecurity. In modern times, princes raise their soldiers by conscription, their sailors by impressment, and drive them at the point of the bayonet and dirk, into the battles they fight for reasons of state. But in a republic, where the people, by their representatives, must vote the declaration of war, and afterwards raise the means of its support, none but wars of just and necessary defence can be waged. Republics, we are told, indeed, are ambitious,—a seemingly wise remark, devoid of meaning. Man is ambitious; and the question is, where will his ambition be most likely to drive his country into war; in a monarchy where he has but to "cry havoc, and let slip the dogs of war," or in a republic, where he must get the vote of a strong majority of the nation? Let history furnish the answer. The book, which promised you, in its title, a picture of the progress of the human family, turns out to be a record, not of the human family, but of the Macedonian family, the Julian family, the families of York and Lancaster, of Lorraine and Bourbon. We need not go to the ancient annals to confirm this remark. We need not speak of those, who reduced Asia and Africa, in the morning of the world, to a vassalage from which they have never recovered. We need not dwell on the more notorious exploits of the Alexanders and

the Cæsars, the men who wept for other worlds to visit with the pestilence of their arms. We need not run down the bloody line of the dark ages, when the barbarous North disgorged her ambitious savages on Europe, or when, at a later period, barbarous Europe poured back her holy ruffians on Asia; we need but look at the dates of modern history,—the history of civilized, balanced Europe. We here behold the ambition of Charles V, involving the continent of Europe in war, for the first half of the sixteenth century, and the fiendlike malignity of Catherine de' Medici and her kindred distracting it the other half. We see the haughty and cheerless bigotry of Philip, persevering in a conflict of extermination for one whole age in the Netherlands, and darkening the English channel with his armada; while France prolongs her civil dissensions, because Henry IV was the twenty-second cousin of Henry III. We enter the seventeenth century, and again find the hereditary pride and bigotry of the House of Austria wasting Germany and the neighbouring powers with the Thirty Years' war; and before the peace of Westphalia is concluded, England is plunged into the fiery trial of her militant liberties. Contemporaneously, the civil wars are revived in France, and the kingdom is blighted by the passions of Mazarin. The civil wars are healed, and the atrocious career of Louis XIV begins; a half century of bloodshed and woe, that stands in revolting contrast with the paltry pretences of his wars. At length the peace of Ryswic is made in 1697, and bleeding Europe throws off the harness and lies down like an exhausted giant to repose. In three years, the testament of a doting Spanish king gives the signal for the Succession war; till a cup of tea spilt on Mrs Masham's apron, restores peace to the afflicted kingdoms. Meantime the madman of the North had broken loose upon the world, and was running his frantic round. Peace at length is restored, and with one or two short wars, it remains unbroken, till, in 1740, the will of Charles VI occasions another testamentary contest; and in the gallant words of the stern but relenting moralist,

> The queen, the beauty, sets the world in arms.

Eight years are this time sufficient to exhaust the combatants, and the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle is concluded; but, in 1755, the old French war is kindled in our own wilderness, and through the united operation of the monopolizing spirit of England, the party intrigues of France, and the ambition of Frederic, spread throughout Europe. The wars of the last generation I need not name, nor dwell on that signal retribution, by which the political ambition of the cabinets at length conjured up the military ambition of the astonishing individual, who seems, in our day, to have risen out of the ranks of the people, to chastise the privileged orders with that iron scourge, with which they had so long afflicted mankind; to

gather with his strong plebeian hands the fragrance of those palmy honours, which they had reared for three centuries in the bloody gardens of their royalty. It may well be doubted, whether, under a government like ours, one of all these contests would have taken place. Those that arose from disputed titles, and bequests of thrones, could not of course have existed; and making every allowance for the effect of popular delusion, it seems to me not possible, that a representative government would have embarked in any of the wars of ambition and aggrandizement, which fill up the catalogue.

Mr Colman gives an animated sketch of the moral sublimity of our declaration of independence; of the spirit which braved danger and difficulty in the struggle for liberty; of the moderation which rested satisfied with its acquisition, and induced our troops to return quietly to their homes, with the wages of service unpaid; of the felicity of our country, springing from civil and religious liberty and the enjoyment of equal rights, and of the bright prospects which are opening to this western continent. Our readers can form an opinion of this oration from the following extract.

There is one circumstance in our social prosperity too prominent to be overlooked, because it was made by our ancestors the basis of our political institutions. It is that the whole form of civil society among us recognises the natural equality of mankind; and admits of none of those artificial distinctions of rank or power, which are held in other countries at the expense of the many for the gain of a few.

One of the first positions assumed in the immortal Declaration, which has this day been read, is, "that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." Into whatever discredit some of the sanguinary events of the French revolution may have brought the abused doctrines of liberty and equality, it becomes every true American to hold to them with his life in their broadest extent. They are sounds which should ever be melodious to his ear; and which can awaken in his heart only responsive pulsations. They are principles boldly asserted by the brave men of the Revolution; and the men not less brave, who preceded them; principles, which, when an American citizen denies, he ceases to hold kindred with those imperishable names from whom he claims descent; and is unworthy to tread the free soil, which gave him birth.

An American can look upon the aristocratic distinctions of the European governments, with all their vain assumptions of ecclesiastical and royal legitimacy, in no other light than as unnatural and

pernicious. To an independent mind, accustomed from infancy to breathe the bracing air of freedom, they must be intolerable. The happiest community doubtless is that where men are as nearly as possible on a level; where the poor man's rights and happiness and liberty and property are as secure, as if entrenched by the strongest bulwarks of political rank or power or wealth. That condition of society is of all others to be chosen, in which, as among us, men become what they choose to make themselves; in which elevation and authority rest upon no other basis than the benefit and free choice of the governed; in which they who rule, equally with them who are ruled, are amenable to their own statutes; and the highest distinctions in the community are offered to every citizen, without other discrimination than as the honourable reward of virtue and talents. Whatever tends in any other respect than as virtue and talents may do it to exalt one, tends in the same degree to depress another portion of the community. Whatever makes men feel that they are in any respect degraded, is likely to create a servile temper, which chills any strong desire of intellectual or moral excellence; or produces a mortified state of mind, which withdraws some of the most powerful encouragements to good conduct. In our own happy condition we see a perfect experiment of the principles of our fathers; and to the credit of their wisdom and philanthropy these principles have proved a great security of public morals, an efficient instrument of public virtue, and powerful means of elevating the intellectual and political character of our community.

Mr Bancroft enters more largely than the preceding orators, into the present state and prospects of the world; displays the splendid results which have sprung from the innate love of liberty in ancient and modern times; the hope which the events of the last fifty years afford of its final triumph; the effect of the French revolution in awakening the spirit of freedom throughout Europe; the unparalleled events which have marked the age; the activity of thought, and the diffusion of knowledge, which prevail; our country's prosperity, and the principles of our political system. In the following passage are set forth her moral condition, and the principles which have marked her progress.

Our moral condition is, then, indeed, superior to that of the old world in the present, or in any former age. We have institutions more free, more just, and more beneficent, than have ever before been established; and that our glory as a nation might in nothing be wanting, the men, to whom the people first confided their interests, they, whose names stand highest in the annals of our glory, the statesmen, by whose voice the pure spirit of the country expressed

its desires, the leaders, by whose bravery and skill our citizens were conducted to success in the contest for their rights, were of undoubted integrity and spotless patriotism, men, in whom the elements of human greatness were so happily mixed, that as their principles were generous and elevated, so their lives were distinguished by a course of honourable action, and the sacrifice of private advantage to the public good. They united the fervour of genius with the magnanimity of character; and the lustre of their brilliant career was tempered by the republican simplicity of their manners. The names of Washington and Franklin recur, as often as examples are sought of enlightened philanthropy and a virtue, almost superhuman. The political privileges of the people correspond with the moral greatness of our illustrious men. Greece and Rome can offer no parallel to the one or the other. In possession of complete personal independence, our religious liberty is entire; our press without restrictions; the channels of wealth and honour alike open to all; the cause of intelligence asserted and advanced by the people; in our houses, our churches, our halls of justice, our legislatures, every where there is liberty. The sublimest views of superior minds are here but homely truths, reduced to practice, and shedding a beneficent influence over all the daily operations of life. Soul is breathed into the public administration by the suffrages of the people, and the aspect of our policy on the world is favourable to universal improvement. The dearest interests of mankind were entrusted to our country; it was for her to show, that the aspirations of former ages were not visionary; that freedom is something more than a name; that the patriots and the states, that have been martyrs in its defence, were struggling in a sacred cause and fell in the pursuit of a real good. The great spirits of former times looked down from their celestial abodes to cheer and encourage her in the hour of danger; the nations of the earth turned towards her as to their last hope. And the country has not deceived them. With unwavering consistency she has pursued the general good and confirmed the national sovereignty; she has joined a decided will to a clear perception of her rights and duties; she has had courage to regulate her course by free principles, wherever they might guide; and has proclaimed them to the world as with the voice of an inspired man. Resolutely developing her resources and perfecting her establishments by the light of her own experience, she stands in the eye of Heaven and the world in all the comeliness and strength of youth, yet swayed by a spirit of mature wisdom, exemplifying in her public capacity the virtues and generous affections of human nature, a light to the world, an example to those who would be free, already the benefactress of humanity, the tutelary angel of liberty. She advances in her course with the energy of rectitude and the calmness of justice. Liberty is her

device; liberty is her glory; liberty is the American policy. This diffuses its blessings throughout all our land; this is cherished in our hearts, dearer than life and dear as honour; this is imbedded in our soil more firmly than the ancient granite in our mountains; this has been bequeathed to us by our fathers; and, whatever may befall us, we will transmit the heritage unimpaired to the coming generation.

These extracts will be sufficient to satisfy our readers of the increasing interest and importance of the class of productions from which they are taken.

Narrative of the Surrender of Buonaparte, and of his Residence on board H. M. S. Bellerophon; with a Detail of the principal Events that occurred in that Ship, between the 24th of May and the 8th of August, 1815. By Captain F. L. Maitland, C. B. Boston. 1826. pp. 176.

Captain Maitland took "notes and memoranda" of all the interesting circumstances which attended the reception and abode of Napoleon, on board the Bellerophon, and in compliance with the earnest solicitations of his friends, soon after "threw them together,"—which, we suppose, means, that he made this book of them. Doubtless this labour, which was the more severe, as his profession and habits were not those of a scholar, would not have been undergone, without some object; and it is scarcely probable, that his purpose *then*, was to wait eleven years before publishing his book. That Captain Maitland withheld his narrative from the public,—for whom he must, after all, have made it,—at the time when he knew that it would be most acceptable to readers of every class, is certain; and the question suggests itself, why was it thus withheld? He confesses (p. 49), that he was "most anxious to terminate the affair he had brought so near a conclusion;" insomuch, that, when he found the approach of Napoleon's vessel delayed by an adverse wind, which was at the same time bringing within reach Sir Henry Hotham, the commanding officer on that station, he sent his own barge for Napoleon, in order to secure the prize; and afterwards replied very explicitly, to rather a *leading question* of Hotham's,—that if he could carry Napoleon to England in the Bellerophon, he would do so. Further, upon his arrival, he saw every body so anxious to look, though from a distance, upon the caught and caged lion, that the guard-boats

could not keep off the crowds; and all the world was eagerly devouring every tale of every fabulist, who bad aught to say of the imperial prisoner. And is it possible that Maitland, who must have felt that he had identified himself with one of the principal events of the age, and have known that all he might say would be received as authentic, is it possible, that any but very strong motives could have withheld him from assuming this position before the public, at once, and getting all the importance which it could give him? We add, that his narrative suggests motives quite sufficient to account for his conduct. We suppose, that, throughout, both in the withholding and in the publishing of his book, he has been under the control of his government. We believe that the British government were displeased with Captain Maitland's conduct to Napoleon, when on board the Bellerophon; it was inconsistent with *their* intended conduct to him; it was generous, liberal, honourable; and they would not give it so much sanction as to suffer their officer and servant to publish it to the world. It is in this view, that the treatment of Napoleon on board His Majesty's ship becomes interesting. Maitland conformed to all his reasonable wishes, as far as possible. We know that Napoleon surrendered himself only because he supposed it his best course to take the chance of being considered a prisoner; but until that chance went against him, he retained the character in which he came on board; and, therefore, Captain Maitland did all that he could to make his situation agreeable. He did not know how much of the mere honour of etiquette it might be proper to pay him; and he evaded that difficult question by receiving him at an hour of the morning when it is not customary to pay honours to any rank. Captain Maitland belongs to a distinguished family; and he is a gentleman, not by birth and station alone, but obviously by education and habit; and, doubtless, he was as far from the vulgar prejudice, which made Bonaparte a monster of iniquity, as from the vulgar admiration, which could see nothing that diminished his greatness; but the man had ruled the nations, and their banded array had hurled him from empire; his sceptre was broken, his power had become weakness, his struggles were over, his hopes were dead; he was ruined. Unluckily for Captain Maitland, it did not occur to him, that, while he carefully avoided every thing which would commit his government, he could be personally too kind to such a guest. That the government, which he served, did not agree with him altogether, we infer from divers considerations. In the first place, Bonaparte was very differently treated

when their orders could be given more explicitly, and carried more into detail. In the next place, while Captain Maitland was thanked for getting hold of Napoleon, he never received any thing whatever, of approbation or acknowledgment, for his services during the difficult and trying emergencies to which the sojourn of Napoleon on board his ship exposed him; and such acknowledgments would hardly have been withheld from the near relation of the Earl of Lauderdale for a slight cause Moreover there is a "circumstance" which may be advantageously connected with this;—Savary and Lallemand came with Napoleon and were excessively alarmed lest the English government should surrender them to the French; Captain Maitland saw fit to write a letter to Lord Melville "stating that such a circumstance "would fix upon his [Maitland's] name, a stain he could not bear;" and though neither Savary nor Lallemand was delivered over to punishment, we may gather from this narrative, that no notice whatever was taken of Maitland's civil and respectful though earnest letter. On the whole, although we know not whether it is more probable that the British Ministers would not permit the publication eleven years ago, or that Maitland's prudence, or that of his friends prevented him from disclosing to the public the variance between his conduct and the views and feelings of his government, we certainly think there is good reason to suppose that one or the other of these causes prevented our seeing this Narrative before.

We shall go into no discussion of the propriety of any part of the conduct of the British government towards the man whom they chose to consider their prisoner. We cannot suppose that the mere publication of this book, or our account of it, can awaken in our readers that interest in its principal subject, which the business of reviewing it has revived in ourselves; and therefore this is not the time or place for such a discussion. But we do not wish to escape this or any question;—and very willingly say that we should find ourselves far more able to respect the men who then composed, and now mainly compose, the government of Great Britain, if they had followed the example which Captain Maitland set them.

It is a little ludicrous, that the author should say, with an attempt to say it seriously, that it required a period of eleven years, and the authority of "a most celebrated literary character" (understood to be Scott), to convince him that his work was worth publishing. Such cant as this can hardly be swallowed in this age; and it seems to be admitted in England, by every body,

that the narrative is published because it has become necessary to give a formal refutation to Las Cases' story of Maitland's engagement with him, that the Emperor should not be considered a prisoner. This purpose the book answers effectually; as no one who reads it, can doubt that Maitland sufficiently disclaimed having any authority or disposition to commit his government. Doubtless, Napoleon understood perfectly well the game he was playing; and we cannot accuse the English government of treachery.

On the whole, this book is valuable because it is authentic, rather than from the information it gives. It impresses one with a more favourable idea of Napoleon's character and demeanour, than the common accounts of the transactions which it narrates. We do not offer our readers an analysis of its story, because it does not disclose any strictly new facts; but we can assure them that we found it very interesting.

We make a few extracts, from which they may judge of Captain Maitland's skill in story-telling, and of the general character of his book.

When dinner was announced, Buonaparte, viewing himself as a Royal personage, which he continued to do while on board the Bellerophon, and which, under the circumstances, I considered it would have been both ungracious and uncalled for in me to have disputed, led the way into the dining-room. He seated himself in the centre at one side of the table, requesting Sir Henry Hotham to sit at his right hand, and Madame Bertrand on his left. * * *

After some conversation, he said, in a cheerful and playful way, that he would show us his camp bed; and sent for Marchand, his premier valet de chambre, who received his order, and soon returned with two small packages in leather cases; one of which contained the bedstead, which was composed of steel, and, when packed up, was not above two feet long, and eighteen inches in circumference; the other contained the mattress and curtains, the latter of green silk. In three minutes the whole was put together, and formed a very elegant small bed, about thirty inches wide. * *

About ten A. M. the barge was manned, and a captain's guard turned out. When Buonaparte came on deck, he looked at the marines, who were generally fine-looking young men, with much satisfaction; went through their ranks, inspected their arms, and admired their appearance, saying to Bertrand, 'How much might be done with a hundred thousand such soldiers as these.' He asked which had been longest in the corps; went up and spoke to him. His questions were put in French, which I interpreted, as well as the man's answers. He inquired how many years he had served; on being told upwards of ten, he turned to me and said, 'Is it not customary in your service, to give a man who has

been in it so long some mark of distinction?' He was informed that the person in question had been a sergeant, but was reduced to the ranks for some misconduct. He then put the guard through part of their exercise, whilst I interpreted to the Captain of Marines, who did not understand French, the manœuvres he wished to have performed. He made some remarks upon the difference of the charge with the bayonet between our troops and the French; and found fault with our method of fixing the bayonet to the musket, as being more easy to twist off, if seized by an enemy when in the act of charging. * * *

He remained upon deck all the time the ship was beating out of Pertuis d'Antioche. Having cleared the Chasseron shoal about six P. M., dinner was served. He conversed a great deal at table, and seemed in very good spirits; told several anecdotes of himself; among others, one relating to Sir Sydney Smith. Knowing that I had served under that officer on the coast of Syria, he turned to me and said, 'Did Sir Sidney Smith ever tell you the cause of his quarrel with me?' I answered he had not. 'Then,' said he, 'I will.—When the French army was before St. Jean d'Acre, he had a paper privately distributed among the officers and soldiers, tending to induce them to revolt and quit me; on which I issued a proclamation, denouncing the English commanding-officer as a madman, and prohibiting all intercourse with him. This nettled Sir Sydney so much, that he sent me a challenge to meet him in single combat on the beach at Caiffa. My reply was, that when Marlborough appeared for that purpose, I should be at his service; but I had other duties to fulfil besides fighting a duel with an English commodore.' He pursued the subject of Syria, and said, patting me (who was sitting next him) on the head; 'If it had not been for you English, I should have been Emperor of the East; but wherever there is water to float a ship, we are sure to find you in our way.' * * *

About this time, Buonaparte amused himself by playing at cards after breakfast: the game was *vingt-un*, in which all the party joined, except myself. He proposed that I should play with them, but I told him I had no money, making it a rule to leave it all with my wife before I went to sea: on which he laughed, and good-humouredly offered to lend me some, and trust me until we arrived in England: I, however, declined his offer, having the numerous duties of the ship to attend to. * * *

Napoleon and all his attendants were very anxious to see as many newspapers as possible, but particularly the Courier, which they considered the Ministerial paper, and most likely to contain the intentions of Government respecting them. They received little encouragement from any of them, but least of all from those which are supposed to take the Ministerial side in politics, as they

not only contained a great deal that was personally offensive, but stated, in very plain terms, that none of the party would be allowed to land in England, and that St. Helena was the probable place of their ultimate destination. Buonaparte himself always affected to consider this as a mere newspaper report, though I believe it gave him a good deal of uneasiness. His followers received it with much irritation and impatience, frequently endeavouring to convince me that our Government could have no right to dispose of them in that way, and talking to me, as if I had been one of his Majesty's Ministers, and had influence in determining on their future destination. All I could say on the subject did not prevent them from frequently recurring to it, and appealing against the injustice of such a measure. * * *

After the ship's arrival in England, Buonaparte seldom left the cabin earlier than five o'clock in the afternoon; passing his time in walking up and down the after-cabin, reading a great deal, and often falling asleep on the sopha, having within these two or three years become very lethargic. * * *

I never heard Buonaparte speak of the battle of Waterloo, or give an opinion of the Duke of Wellington; but I asked General Bertrand what Napoleon thought of him. "Why," replied he, "I will give you his opinion nearly in the words he delivered it to me. 'The Duke of Wellington, in the management of an army, is fully equal to myself, with the advantage of possessing more prudence.'"

MISCELLANY.

REMARKS ON PRONUNCIATION.

At the close of my remarks on the orthoepy of our language, in the Gazette of February 15th, I intimated my design to resume the subject, and notice some of the most prominent inaccuracies which obtain among us. I am not insensible to the difficulties in the way of doing this judiciously. Some of the errors to be noticed, are chiefly confined to a particular section of our country, and will not be recognised by those who are strangers to that section; others may be thought too slight to deserve notice, and, in all of them, the difficulty of accurately representing to the eye those distinctions which belong appropriately to the ear, is seriously felt.

Those of my readers who have attended to this subject, will know how to appreciate these difficulties, and all, who think correct pronunciation desirable, will probably admit, that a beginning

in pointing out errors on this subject, though very imperfect, may lead to some valuable results. There is another, and a pretty numerous class of readers, some of whom, I am sorry to say, are found among the leaders of our literary institutions, who hold, that on this subject there is no law, and consequently no transgression, but that every man is at liberty to do that which is right in his own eyes. Others admit that something ought to be done, but consider the difficulties to be encountered so numerous, and the obstacles to be removed so great, that they treat it as a hopeless case, and limit all their efforts to promote accuracy to occasional complaints of the want of it, and reject all the efforts of others, as aiming at an impossibility. If any one of this class should read more than the title of this article, I would beg leave to suggest to him the *possibility*, that the reason why so little is accomplished in the department of orthoepy, is that so little is attempted. Orthography and syntax would probably be as unsettled as orthoepy, if they had been as much neglected by our literary men; at least, till some exertions to promote uniformity are made by those who have the charge of education, or who have influence in the literary community, we cannot know that such exertions, if made, would be unavailing.

The remarks which follow, are the results of observations, made almost exclusively on those who have been publicly educated, embracing graduates from all the New England colleges, and most of those in the Middle States. The errors are arranged generally according to the frequency with which they have occurred within the writer's observation.

1. The sound of* ŭ for ĕ. This is altogether the most prevalent inaccuracy which is heard in New England. It occurs most frequently before *r*, as *mur-cy*, *pur-fect*, *pre-fur*, for 'mĕr-cy,' 'pĕr-fect,' 'pre-fĕr.' Sometimes it occurs in other cases, as *bruth-ren* for 'brĕth-ren.' The correct sound of *e* is very generally heard where it precedes *r*, before a vowel or another *r*, as *mer-it*, *ver-y*, *er-ror*, which it would be unpardonable to pronounce *mur-it*, *ur-ror*, &c., though it would be no greater violation of propriety, than *mur-cy* and *pur-manent*. The same error is frequently heard where i precedes *r* and another consonant, and is not in a final syllable; as *vir-tue*, *vir-gin*, *fir-mament*, &c., which should have precisely the sound of *e* in *mer-it*. Mr Nares complains of this inaccuracy, as prevailing in England, and in proof of its vulgarity, quotes the remark of a Cambridge scholar on the word virgin,

Si pulchra est, *vir-go*, sin turpis, *vur-go* vocetur.

The correct sound of the *e* is beginning to be restored by our most accurate speakers, and one would think its claims need only

* Walker's notation is used wherever the vowels are marked by figures.

be presented, in order to be acknowledged by every lover of correct orthoepy. It is one of the most delicate and harmonious sounds in our language, and its restoration would add much to the beauty of our pronunciation.

2. The long sound of the Italian *a* for the short one, or å as in *far*, *bar*, for à as in *fan*, *bad*.

This error occurs much more frequently in New England than in the Middle and Southern States. It is most frequently heard when *a* precedes *n* or *s* and another consonant, as *dance*, *slant*, *answer*, *basket*, *past*, *last*; it is frequently heard in *after*, and sometimes in *man*, *hand*, &c. To all these words, and to most others of the same class, Walker gives the short sound of *a*, as in *had*, *bat*, and is followed by the majority of correct speakers among us, though his notation is disapproved by Mr Webster. There is an evident increase of the short English sound of *a* among the best orthoepists in New England; and in the Middle and Southern States it is almost uniformly given to this class of words.* The practice of giving the French sound (å) to this vowel in Latin and Greek, has done much to form and perpetuate this error in New England. This practice in several of our literary institutions is now happily laid aside, and with it the fault in question will probably disappear.

3. The use of ĭ for ē, and conversely, of ē for ĭ, as *in-stid* for *in-stead*, *yit* for *yet*, *yis-terday* for *yes-terday*, &c. This error is less palpable, when the vowel is not under the accent, as *gos-pil*, *bar-ril*, *trav-il*, &c., for *gos-pel*, *bar-rel*, &c., but it is an error still, and though frequently heard from speakers who are generally correct, ought to be avoided, as it may very easily be.

The sound of ē for ĭ is not frequently heard in polite circles, except in *ben* for *bin* (been), which is very common in New England. Though an acknowledged vulgarism, and reprobated even by Mr Webster, this fault has contrived to hold a place in better company than it deserves, to the no small annoyance of our orthoepy. It is occasionally heard in *wedth* for *width*, *sence* for *since*, and a few similar words.

4. The third sound of *o* as in 'mȯrtal,' for the fourth, as in 'nȯt.' The words *gos-pel*, *mor-al*, *clos-et*, *moderate*, &c., are frequently spoken *gaws-pil*, *maw-ral*, *claw-set*, &c. This fault occurs more frequently in formal discourse than in common conversation, and most frequently of all in the pulpit. Some, who in conversation pronounce correctly, in solemn, and especially in devotional ad-

* Previously to Sheridan's time, the second sound of *a* is said to have been given in almost every case before *n* or *r*. Mr Nares gives this sound to nearly one hundred and fifty words, and their derivatives, to nearly nine tenths of which Walker gives the fourth sound. Walker's notation is adopted by our more accurate speakers, though several of those who dissent from him in many words of this class, cannot be called careless speakers.

dresses, drawl out words of this class, as if their sanctity was proportioned to the badness with which they are pronounced. This drawling enunciation is sometimes extended to the name of God, which is pronounced as if written *Gawd*. There is, perhaps, no fault in our speaking, which grates more harshly on a correct ear than this, and it is most devoutly to be wished, that it may be banished from our pulpits. Whilst speaking of the pulpit, I will add, that more has been done by our clergy, to confirm the first fault which was named (sound of å for ê), than by any other class of men. The reason is, there is a large class of words, in which that sound is prominent, which recur perpetually in the pulpit; as *virtue*, *mercy*, *earth*, *perfect*, &c.

5. A wrong sound of *u*. Few vowels fare harder with careless speakers than this. Sometimes short *e* or *i* is thrust into its place, as *setch* for *such*, *jest* and *jist* for *just*, *diffekilt* and *petikelar* for *difficult* and *particu-lar*, *nat-e-ral* for *nat-u-ral*.

To *u* after *r*, Walker gives the sound of *oo*, as *trooth*, *pro-troosion*, &c., and in distinguishing this sound from that of the same letter in *cubic*, *dupe*, &c., he has nearly the unanimous approbation of correct speakers in different parts of our country. We still, however, sometimes hear *trew* and *trewth* from gentlemen of education, and sometimes, though less frequently, the close sound of *u* in *na-ture*, *fea-ture*, *crea-ture*, and other words of this class. Both these errors are defended by Mr Webster, though the last is hardly ever heard out of New England, except among the lower classes of the community, by whom these words are sometimes pronounced *na-ter*, *fe-ter*, *crit-ter*, &c., and not frequently in New England, except from very careless speakers.

6. The omission of *r* after a vowel before *s*. The frequency of this fault is, doubtless, to be ascribed, in some measure, to the difficulty of giving the correct sound. The vowel assimilates so easily with the hissing sound of *s*, that it requires some attention to preserve the *r* sound distinctly between them. Hence we frequently hear *haws* for *horse*; *fust* and *wust* for *first* and *worst*; *pus* for *purse*; *cus* for *curse*; *bust* for *burst*.

Walker complains of a fault among the Londoners allied to this; the omission of *r* before *d*, as *laad* and *baad* for *lard* and *bard*; this, though arising, in some degree, from a similar cause, is scarcely heard among us.

7. Similar to the above, in some respects, is the omission of *t* when it occurs between two consonants. The distinct sound of the *t* is but rarely heard in words of this class, except from very accurate speakers. Thus, in *posts*, *fists*, *insists*, &c., the termination *sts* is sounded like a protraction of the hissing sound of *s*; and in *facts*, *tracts*, *exacts*, &c., *cts* is sounded precisely like *x*, *fax*, *trax*, *exax*, &c. The difficulty of pronouncing correctly in this

case and the last, furnishes some apology for the existing errors, but no reason why we should not strive to correct them. On the contrary, the difficulties to be overcome, render a special effort proper on the part of those who wish to obtain accuracy.

8. Another omission is that of *g* final in the termination *ing*, *be-in*, *havin*, *see-in*, &c., for *being*, *having*, *see-ing*, &c. This fault is the more to be deprecated, on account of the vast multitude of words which it affects, and the more inexcusable because it is, in all cases, the result of mere carelessness. Those, who rarely, if ever, sound the *g* in an unaccented syllable, never fail to sound it when under the accent, though there is no more difficulty in one case than in the other. It is somewhat remarkable, that Walker has allowed this omission of the *g*, where the preceding syllable ends in *ing*, as in *sing-ing*, *bring-ing*, *fling-ing*, &c., which he allows to be spoken *sing-in*, &c. The reason, however, on the ground of which he allows it,—that it is thus omitted by the best speakers,—does not exist among us. The omission is not made at all by correct speakers with us, and those who make it where Walker allows it, make it also in other cases. Thus every man who says *sing-in* for *sing-ing*, says *feel-in* and *hav-in*, which Walker reprobates.

9. The omission of *h* after *w*, as *wat* for *what*, *wen* and *were* for *when* and *where*, *wich* for *which*, *wether* for *whether*, &c. This is heard much more frequently in the Middle and Southern States than in New England. Those who indulge themselves in this error, may indeed plead English precedent, as it is marked by Walker among the prevailing faults in London. As the London fashion, however, in this particular, is followed among us only by careless speakers, this omission of *h* may be fairly classed among the vulgarities of our pronunciation.

10. There is a small class of words in which the sound of û is substituted for *o*, as *beyund* for *beyond*, *hum* for *home*, *furrin* for *foreign*, *hull* for *whole*, *stun* for *stone*, and a few others. This fault prevails most among the less intelligent classes of society, but is not confined to them. It occurs sometimes, especially in common conversation, among those who are by no means chargeable with a pronunciation generally vulgar or faulty. It is, however, a gross fault, wherever found, and one which should by no means be tolerated by correct speakers.

11. The sound of *a* is given in several words for ê, as *agane* and *agên*, *aganest*, *ware*, &c., for 'agên' (again), 'a-gênst,' 'wêr,' &c. *Were* is *sometimes* pronounced *wur*, but improperly. The converse of this fault occurs in about an equal number of words where ê (or û) is substituted for *a*, as *ketch* for *catch*, *fur* for *far*, *Jenuery* for *January*.

12. The sound of *er* final is given to many words ending in *ow*, as *winder*, *piller*, *taller*, &c., for *window*, *pillow*, *tallow*, &c. This

is not a very common fault, but a very gross one, and one which ought to be entirely banished.

Several faults, not included in either of the above classes, merit, in this place, a brief notice.

Dooz for 'dûz' (does) is very common in New England, and is not unfrequently heard from those who ought to set a better example. Except *ben* for *bin*, it is perhaps more frequently heard in the Northern States than any other wrong pronunciation. It is not so frequent south of New England, and is growing into disuse there.

Heered for "hèrd" is an error of very frequent occurrence, and, though not quite so bad as *ben* and *dooz*, is, nevertheless, worthy of a careful correction. Inaccurate speakers, in endeavouring to correct this fault, sometimes run into another, and give the sound of û (*hurd*) for ê. This, though much nearer the true sound than *heered*, is still an error, and will be carefully distinguished by accurate speakers from the correct sound (hèrd).

There are several words, in which the accent is very generally misplaced, as *cóntemplate*, *démonstrate*, *décorous*, *énervate*, &c., for *contémplate*, *demónstrate*, *decórous*, *enérvate*.

We hear, also, sometimes *pât-riot* for *pâ-triot*, *bab-tist* and *bab-tize* for *bap-tist* and *bap-tize*, *tribble* and *thribble* for *triple*, *grîn-stone* for *grînd-stone*, *lè-per* for *lêp-er*, *sacra-fîs* for *sacra-fîze*, *prov-esy* for *prof-esy*, *guver-ment* for *govern-ment*, *covetious* and *tremendious* for *covetus* and *tremendus*, *prò-gress* for *prôg-ress*; *neow*, *keountenance*, &c., for *now*, *countenance*, &c. This last, the insertion of *e* before *ou* or *ow*, is almost exclusively a New England fault. Mr Webster notices it with some severity, as well as great justice, in his letters, and it is much less frequently heard now than it formerly was.

This list might be easily enlarged, but my object is to give specimens, rather than catalogues of the errors embraced under the different heads. The faults above cited have all been graduated at some of our colleges, and may consequently be considered as among the most *learned* faults in our country. There are probably but few gentlemen, who have enjoyed the advantages of a public education, who are guilty of all of them, and still fewer who are guilty of none.

I am aware that this subject is regarded by many of our literati as quite unimportant, and that not a few of the presidents and professors of our colleges, and other public seminaries, render no assistance, either by precept or example, to those of their pupils who wish to pronounce correctly. It unquestionably is a thing of small consequence in comparison with some others, and so is correct orthography, or syntax, or good rhetoric. But then, like a spot on a man's face, it is, though small, conspicuous; it is a fault which cannot be concealed from public notice, and for which, at least among educated men, there is no possible excuse, since it is

quite as easy to pronounce correctly as incorrectly, and the means of attaining a good degree of correctness are in every man's hands. It is also true, that the importance attached to this subject in public opinion is increasing; an awkward pronunciation is, in some of our literary circles, considered as incompatible with the character of an accomplished scholar, as are awkward manners with the character of an accomplished gentleman; and, whilst we cheerfully admit, with the ingenious Dr Wallis, that this is one of the things in which accuracy does not confer great praise, we must also add with him, that gross inaccuracy, at least among the friends of polite learning, is a great disgrace.

I shall close my remarks with a few suggestions as to the means of improving our pronunciation. The best way, on this, as on all similar subjects, is to begin at the foundation of the error,—in our common schools. If correct habits were formed on this subject, in the incipient stages of education, we should have no more trouble in after life with defects in orthoepy than in orthography. These habits, however, by most of those now on the stage, have not been formed, and my remarks will therefore relate principally to the more advanced stages of education.

First, I would suggest to the instructers in those of our public seminaries where this subject has been entirely neglected, the propriety of making it a matter of criticism. In the exercise devoted to public speaking in these seminaries, a fault in the position of the body, or in the management of the countenance, or the voice, or the motion of the hand, is carefully corrected; whilst errors in pronunciation are, in many of these seminaries, passed by unheeded. A very little attention on these occasions would eradicate many of the most prominent faults, as the experience of those who have made the trial has abundantly shown.

The source, however, from which improvement is to be expected, is from the students themselves. For this purpose, let two or three individuals be selected in the respective societies in which they meet for literary improvement, who shall carefully note down, and report at the close of each meeting, all deviations from the acknowledged standards of orthoepy. Walker, except in the few cases where he departs from all good use among us, is the acknowledged standard of our country; and these cases may generally be determined with sufficient exactness. By preserving a list of the words thus corrected, the critics would be able at the close of each term or year to report what progress had been made in correcting errors, and what still remained to be done. Such a course, in a few of our principal seminaries, would enable those who feel interested in the subject, to ascertain at any time the state of it in these seminaries, and a comparison of the statements thus obtained, would show, much more accurately than it can now be

done, the real state of American orthoepy, and, I doubt not, would put to silence those who treat all attempts at improvement in this department, as idle chimeras, and would also effect an essential diminution of those errors which now deform our pronunciation.

Finally, let the editors of our periodical journals, especially those who devote any portion of their attention to literature, lend a helping hand in this work. The influence which these gentlemen exert over public opinion is generally felt and acknowledged, and it is in public opinion that the change on this subject must be wrought. Whilst it is disregarded in the public mind, critics may in vain plead the cause of violated analogies, and authorities disregarded. The "jus et norma loquendi," from which there is no appeal, is use,—reputable, general, present use. It is as conforming *generally* to this use, that Walker is almost uniformly acknowledged as a standard by our literary public. Now if the conductors of our respective periodical journals would take as much pains to correct errors in orthoepy, which prevail in their respective vicinities, as many of them have taken to correct errors in orthography and syntax, we should see the fruit of their labours in a very general improvement on this subject. There is no country on earth, where so many facilities are enjoyed for attaining accuracy, on subjects of this nature, as in our own; and should the attention which these subjects are beginning to receive, continue increasing, the time is not remote, when we shall as far surpass the old world in the propriety with which our language is generally spoken, as we now do, in the general diffusion of knowledge, and the excellence of our civil institutions.

XANTHUS.

LETTER FROM AN ADVENTURER IN ENGLAND.

My Dear B.

I have been six months in London, as you know, without being able to boast of having acquired any additional stock either of wisdom or of virtue. The latter quality, truly, is a matter of no easy attainment in this land of "mountebanks and mist,"—*I* will not say of "liars;" for, verily, I believe the English to be a more moral people than their neighbours of the continent. The observance of the Sabbath has been more strictly enjoined by the English laws, according to Chief Justice Moyle, than by those of any other Christian community. This is but an imperfect criterion, however, whereby to determine the moral character of a nation. Even admitting that the great mass of the people *do* conform to such laws, the fact admits only of a civil, and not a moral inference The penalties incurred by any, the least infraction of the laws in this country, are so severe, as greatly to deter from the commission

of crime; and yet, scarcely a month passes over without either an execution at the Old Bailey, or a transportation to New South Wales. It is, indeed, a melancholy thing to cast one's eye over the weekly pages of the "Newgate Calendar;" and yet a staunch Englishman would retort, How is the protection of life and property to be ensured in such a daily carnival as London presents, without the aid of laws calculated to terrify wretches, whom nothing but the fear of death deters from the most horrible excesses?

You will hardly expect me, my dear B., to give you an account of our passage up the channel, after having read the "Sketch Book" of Washington Irving. I have not the vanity to put my pen in competition with his crayon. Suffice it, then, to say, that the approach to Liverpool, after you get within five or six miles of the Old Town, is extremely picturesque; and presents a scene altogether novel to the eye of a foreigner. I cannot describe to you the minute localities of the scenery, as I had no note-book; and the "table of my memory" retains rather a vague, or, perhaps I should say, a general impression. I was below in my state-room, busily preparing to disembark my person, for which, as you know, I have a due share of respect, when Captain P., who, somehow or other, had discovered that I had a taste for the beauties of nature, both in her animate and inanimate forms, suddenly summoned me on deck; and with an air of complacency, which alone would have told me he was an Englishman, invited my attention to the group of objects that presented themselves to the eye on the Lancashire side of the Mersey. My attention was utterly distracted between the beauties of the shore and of the ship; for, among fifteen or twenty steerage passengers, Scotch and Irish, there happened to be two native daughters of the "green isle," fair, though pale as the white lily of its valleys. It was at once comfortable and exhilirating to see the pleased looks and smooth holyday appearance of the group who stood huddled together, perhaps for the last time, simpering and jostling among themselves,—rendered half foolish by the delightful anticipation of embracing kindred, lovers, and friends once again upon their native hearths. *My* household gods had long been broken, "with shattered hopes that had turned to dust;" I had little, therefore, to regret, and nothing to hope. The rich mosaic of the scenery on the Mersey, at once stimulates the fancy and gratifies the eye. The landscape on the right presents a tessellated surface of alternate verdure and rich black mould, which is altogether peculiar, I believe, to this island, and extremely captivating to the eye. In the midst of these almost fairy gardens, at various distances, are seen stately structures of coloured brick and free-stone, rising, as though by the stroke of an enchanter's wand, out of the bowels of the earth. The view of the fine docks, the finest in the world, as you approach the town, and the innumerable

masts, with their thousand various pennants streaming in the blue transparency above, presents a very striking picture to the eye. A long wall, of a light colour and great height, runs upon a level with the surface of the river the whole extent of the three docks. The Montezuma did not get in for some hours after we landed. A quaker maiden of eighty, and a goodnatured Englishman of little more than thirty,—who had been frightened away from the West Indies by a threatened insurrection among the negroes,—together with Captain P. and myself, got into the small boat. Mr S. was unfortunately lame; I therefore tendered him my services, while Captain P., with a gravity very peculiar to himself, offered his arm to the lady. The wind was high, and, like "a chartered libertine," sported with the new rustling silk gown and sprucely starched cap that peered from underneath a bonnet as modest as ever maiden wore.

We succeeded, however, in reaching the wall, and disembarking at the foot of a high flight of steps that led up from the river, we at length,—after the old maiden's ruffles had been so utterly discomfited as not a little to ruffle her serenity,—landed on the quay; and, for the first time in my life, I placed my foot on English ground. I involuntarily turned an eye of something like parting regret towards our gallant ship, that lay moored in the Mersey, majestically riding its waves; and almost heaved a sigh, as I reluctantly withdrew my attention, attracted by the voice of Captain P., who, like a man accustomed to meet and part with objects, was coolly directing his steps towards the Star and Garter Inn. I observed a party of ladies, as I turned from the ship, who suddenly entered upon the quay, attended by two gentlemen. One of the ladies struck me as being very beautiful, though veiled; and, on getting up with Captain P., he pointed her out to me as the celebrated Miss Foote. I entirely forgot the ship,—that recollection was sunk and lost in the sensations which a glimpse of the Hebe countenance of Miss Foote awakened. My poor lame friend, however, gave me such a look of helpless supplication, that, 'spite of the spell that seemed to bind my senses, I took the hint,—for there was no resisting the appeal,—and, tendering him my arm, we leisurely proceeded along the extensive promenade that skirts the Mersey, in the direction towards our inn. His limbs, however, at last refused their office; and, Captain P. having gone to another quarter, we got into a hackney chariot. The first objects that attracted my attention, as we entered upon one of the principal streets, were the immense panes of glass to be seen in the windows of the magnificent shops on either hand, contrasting with the smaller panes,—not more than two inches square,—that gave light, or rather visible darkness, to a number of private houses, of humble and extremely antique appearance. At every window the eye was

attracted by splendid prints of illustrious individuals, landscapes of exceeding beauty; and collections of books, of all descriptions, staring one in the face, from one shilling up to a hundred pounds. Every thing, in short, was interesting to me, for my mind was stored with associations that imparted to all I saw, a charm wholly intellectual. The name even of Roskell, the famous clock-maker, in large gilt letters on the door, afforded food to my curious fancy. In a snug little study of mine, I remember, when, stimulated by the perusal of a favourite author, I sometimes forgot the flight of time, a clock of Roskell's, mounted on the chimney-board above me, would ever and anon recall my wandering imagination; and remind me that I had trespassed,—not on my prescribed hours of study, for I read at all times and in all places,—but upon the limits of sober application. The name of Roskell, by a palpable resemblance in the sound, reminded me that I was sojourning in the same land, nay, in the same town, with the venerable and illustrious man, whose fame had travelled over the waters of the Atlantic; and had become as familiar to the ears of our young and distant nation embosomed in the pine solitudes of North America, as it is exalted in the opinion of his own countrymen, who, by their steady and munificent patronage of the arts, show that they know how to appreciate genius.

We at length alighted at the "Star and Garter," where mine host provided us with an excellent dinner; and, for the first time, I began to discuss the old English currency of pounds, shillings, and pence. The difference in the denomination and relative value of this currency, puzzled me not a little at first; for, although I had often attempted when at school to calculate shillings and pence, yet my head proved harder than the coin, for my worthy masters could never make any impression upon it. It is, after all, a provoking sort of money; for a man may have his purse filled with the shining ore, and yet, to his infinite mortification and regret, find himself possessed of but a few paltry pounds. The "Star and Garter" afforded us the most sumptuous fare—the best rump steaks and coffee that ever regaled my Epicurean palate. The friseur applied his curling-irons to my hair; for he insisted upon it, that it would be to commit a grievous offence against the reigning fashion, for a gentleman to appear in public with hair like the savage locks of a Choctaw Indian. He "busied himself after this fashion," as Mr Knowles would say, for some time; and at length dismissed me looking like any body in the world but my proper self. After discussing our vintage, Captain P. and myself,—for Mr S. declined going,—repaired to the theatre, to see Miss Foote, in the character of Rosalind, in "As You Like It." I was not particularly struck with the building, which resembled, with a few exceptions, most of the theatres I had seen; but I was

struck and charmed too, both with the appearance and acting of Miss Foote. The only fault I was compelled to see in her manner, was a slight tinge of affectation; which did not, however, lessen the attraction of her person or the merits of her acting; but very strikingly contrasted with the perfectly plain, simple, yet open and sensible deportment of the lady who performed the part of Celia. The next morning after breakfast, Captain P. proposed an excursion to Cheshire, famous for its cheese and rock or mineral salt. From the latter circumstance, we are led to infer, according to Dr Franklin's theory, that Cheshire was once either covered by, or was below the sea,—and yet, there were never any volcanoes in its neighbourhood that we know of,—by means of which alone it is, that the philosophical doctor attempts to account for the evaporation of sea-water. We repaired to the docks, and descended into a black-looking steam-boat, whose funereal appearance strongly contrasted with every thing on the deck, which presented a motley mixture of men, women, and children, amusing themselves in various ways; while strains from the violoncello and tambarine re-echoed from the shores, as our rapid prow dashed through the rough waters of the Mersey. Captain P. and myself explored the country for five or six miles round; which every where presented the most picturesque views, and the richest aspect. Indeed the *verdure* of the English grounds is beyond any thing I ever saw. I found Captain P. possessed of considerable botanical knowledge; for he pointed out to me a number of plants and flowers, giving me their names, history, and peculiar virtues,—flowers, many of which I had often culled, and whose fragrance I had inhaled again and again, without knowing or inquiring what they were. We traced a semicircle beach to the river, after a walk of four hours; during which time we had narrowly examined every thing worth seeing; every secret nook and "coigne of vantage," that invited our attention, and seemed likely to reward our labour.

We at length reached Berkenhead Priory, of almost immemorial date; and which, indeed, wore an aspect of old days. The Gothic associations of the pile and of the place, were, however, nearly destroyed by the obtrusion of a small modern structure in close contact with it. My fancy was too strongly stimulated, however, to admit of any abatement from this ungrateful circumstance; and, as "the thistle waved its head, and the moss whistled to the wind" on its hoary summit, this "ancient of days," with its faded appearance of monkish austerity, that seemed to

Plead haughtily for glories gone,

produced a strong and solemn impression upon my mind, from whose influence I did not soon recover. The voice of Captain P. roused me from my poetic dream; and showed me that the sun was

indeed going down; for, although we reached the Cheshire side at twelve, it was now fast verging to nightfall. We stopped in our way from the Priory, at a large and handsome inn, directly fronting Liverpool; and after regaling ourselves with a glass of brandy and soda-water mixed, a delightful beverage entirely new to me, we retraced our steps to the steam-boat, where we found the music that had cheered us over, ready to cheer us back. Adieu, my dear B., for the present. In my next, I will endeavour to give you some account of the beautiful country through which we passed on our way to the "great city," with all particulars that I think may interest you.

Yours, &c.

R. J.

London, April 1st, Strand.

ITALIAN LYRICAL POETRY.

VITTORIA COLONNA.

Of the many illustrious Italian ladies, who have successfully cultivated poesy, none was more eminent for the rank of her family and the fame of her writings, than Vittoria Colonna. She was born in the year 1490, at Marino, daughter of Fabrizio Colonna, grand constable of Naples, and his wife Anna, daughter of the Duke of Urbino. She was betrothed to Ferdinand d'Avalos, marquess of Pescara, at the age of four, and married to him at the age of seventeen, already distinguished by the beauty of her person, and the rare endowments of her mind, accomplished by the most diligent education. The closest sympathy of taste and feeling, and the warmest conjugal affection, made the first years of their union happy; but, in 1512, this pleasure was interrupted, her husband being made captive in the battle of Ravenna. His release again restored her to happiness for a time; but, in 1525, a settled gloom was thrown over the remainder of her days, by his dying of wounds received in the battle of Pavia. Thenceforth, devoting herself to a life of celibacy, she spent her time in religious services, and in the cultivation of letters, being honoured with the friendship of the first literary men of the age, such as Bembo, Contarini, Guidiccioni, and Alamanni. She resided chiefly in Naples and Rome, in which latter city she died, in the year 1547. Her best pieces, of which the following is an example, relate to her husband.

'T was here I met my hero, from the fight
Returning, with imperial trophies fraught;
Ah me! what anguish now attends the thought
Of times and scenes all splendour and delight!

A thousand glories round him did unite,
In fields of death and carnage nobly bought:
How trustful then, how joyously I caught
His manly tones, his look so high and bright!
Vanquished by love's entreaties, he would show
Beautiful scars, and tell the thrilling tale
Of victories, famed afar, his arms had won.
Deep, as my bliss was then, is now my woe;
Whilst each, by turns, I welcome or bewail,
Few tears in joy, but streams in sadness run.

—

VERONICA GAMBARA.

The fame and fortunes of Veronica Gambara closely resemble those of Vittoria Colonna. Born of a noble family of Brescia, in the year 1485, she was married, in 1509, to Giberto, lord of Correggio. His death, a few years afterwards, left her a widow, in the prime of life; but her affection for her deceased husband, and her regard for his memory, caused her steadily to refuse a second marriage. Occupied in the wise government of her subjects, in the education of her children, and in literary pursuits, she lived until 1550, enjoying through life the highest moral and intellectual character.

To Charles V. and Francis I.

Chase from your angry breasts your ancient hate,
Francis and Charles, and let the sacred name
Of Christ and of his Cross, your souls inflame
With zeal for Him, who gave you power and state.
Rather combine your arms to subjugate
His impious foes, than, emulous of shame,
O'er Italy, o'er Europe wide proclaim
A mutual rage, no time nor woes can sate.
The holy pastor, to whose hands are due
The keys of heaven, invokes you to assuage
Your fatal wrath, the scourge of Christian lands.
Spare, then, his bleeding flock, and join anew
In consecrated league your martial bands,
The war on scornful infidels to wage.

—

GASPARA STANISSA.

This lady, not less highly praised by Italians as a poetess, than the two preceding, was born at Padua, in 1524. She died at the early age of thirty, the victim of her unrequited love for Collattino dei Conti di Collatto, to whom much of her poetry is addressed. The following sonnet, however, is of a different character.

Invocation to God.

Sad and repentant of my sins, I start
  To think how wandering, empty, light, and low
  My days have been; to see, with shame and woe,
  My life, in love's vain service spent, depart.
To thee, my God, who softenest every heart,—
  Who meltest even the frozen arctic snow,—
  Who smoothest all things rugged here below,
  For them, who burn to choose the holier part,—
I turn, and pray thee to extend thy grace
  To save me from the sea of sin, whence I
  Alone should vainly strive to win the strand.
For us, thou didst descend and leave the sky,
  To ransom, in thy mercy, all our race;
  Sweet Lord, then let not me despairing die.

—

MICHEL AGNOLO.

Michel Agnolo Buonarotti, born at Florence, died in Rome in 1564, eighty-nine years of age, pre-eminent, during his long life, as a painter, sculptor, architect, and civil engineer. The church of St Peter's in Rome, the sepulchral monument of Julius II., and the paintings of the Sistine chapel are the great monuments of his extraordinary genius. But he also possessed a natural turn for verse; and if he had sedulously applied himself to its cultivation, might have become as eminent in poetry as he was in the sister arts. His poems consist chiefly of sonnets, many of a devotional, and many others of an amatory character, the best of which latter class are addressed to the deservedly famous Vittoria Colonna.

Ideal Beauty.

Mine eyes beheld no common mortal sight,
  While, gazing on the placid beams of thine,
  I felt my spirit, in their ray divine,
  Kindling to spread her wings for heavenly flight,
And seek repose in realms of kindred light:
  No frail and earthly charms my soul confine;
  She soars to view in steadier glory shine
  The "ideal form" of beauty infinite.
The sage will never hope for lasting joys
  In perishable clay, nor rashly bind
  His love to that, which time and death control.
Unbridled will, not love, the soul destroys;
  For here true love exalts the immortal mind,
  And higher yet in heaven 't will raise the soul.

C. C.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

THE CONJUNCTION OF JUPITER AND VENUS.*

I WOULD not always reason. The straight path
Wearies us with its never-varying lines,
And we grow melancholy. I would make
Reason my guide, but she should sometimes sit
Patiently by the way-side, while I traced
The mazes of the pleasant wilderness
Around me. She should be my counsellor,
But not my tyrant. For the spirit needs
Impulses from a deeper source than hers,
And there are motions in the mind of man
That she must look upon with awe. I bow
Reverently to her dictates, but not less
Hold to the fair illusions of old time—
Illusions that shed brightness over life,
And glory over nature. Look even now
Where two bright planets in the twilight meet
Upon the saffron heaven,—the imperial star
Of Jove, and she that from her radiant urn
Pours forth the light of love. Let me believe
Awhile that they are met for ends of good
Amid the evening glory, to confer
Of men and their affairs, and to shed down
Kind influences. Lo, their orbs burn more bright
And shake out softer fires! The great earth feels
The gladness and the quiet of the time.
Meekly the mighty river, that infolds
This mighty city, smooths his front, and far
Glitters and burns even to the rocky base
Of the dark heights that bound him to the west;
And a deep murmur from the many streets
Rises like a thanksgiving. Put we hence
Dark and sad thoughts awhile—there 's time for them
Hereafter—on the morrow we will meet
With melancholy looks to tell our griefs
And make each other wretched; this calm hour,
This balmy, blessed evening we will give

* This conjunction was said in the common calendars to take place on the 2d of August last. It has been affirmed, that this was a mistake; but the apparent approach of the planets was sufficiently near for poetical purposes.

To cheerful hopes and dreams of happy days,
Born of the meeting of those glorious stars.

Enough of drought has parched the year, and scared
The land with dread of famine. Autumn yet
Shall make men glad with unexpected fruits.
The dog-star shall shine harmless; genial days
Shall softly glide away into the keen
And wholesome cold of winter; he that fears
The pestilence shall gaze on these pure beams,
And breathe with confidence the quiet air.

Emblems of Power and Beauty! well may they
Shine brightest on our borders, and withdraw
Towards the great Pacific, marking out
The path of empire. Thus, in our own land,
Ere long the better Genius of our race,
Having encompassed earth and tamed its tribes,
Shall sit him down beneath the farthest west,
By the shore of that calm ocean, and look back
On realms made happy.

Light the nuptial torch,
And say the glad, yet solemn rite, that knits
The youth and maiden. Happy days to them
That wed this evening!—a long life of love,
And blooming sons and daughters! Happy they
Born at this hour,—for they shall see an age
Whiter and holier than the past, and go
Late to their graves. Men shall wear softer hearts
And shudder at the butcheries of war,
As now at other murders.

Hapless Greece!
Enough of blood has wet thy rocks, and stained
Thy rivers; deep enough thy chains have worn
Their links into thy flesh; the sacrifice
Of thy pure maidens, and thy innocent babes,
And reverend priests, has expiated all
Thy crimes of old. In yonder mingling lights
There is an omen of good days for thee.
Thou shalt arise from 'midst the dust and sit
Again among the nations. Thine own arm
Shall yet redeem thee. Not in wars like thine
The world takes part. Be it a strife of kings,—
Despot with despot battling for a throne,—

And Europe shall be stirred throughout her realms,
Nations shall put on harness, and shall fall
Upon each other, and in all their bounds
The wailing of the childless shall not cease.
Thine is a war for liberty, and thou
Must fight it single-handed. The old world
Looks coldly on the murders of thy race,
And leaves thee to the struggle; and the new,—
I fear me thou could'st tell a shameful tale
Of fraud and lust of gain,—thy treasury drained
And Missolonghi fallen. Yet thy wrongs
Shall put new strength into thy heart and hand,
And God and thy good sword shall yet work out
For thee a terrible deliverance.

B.

EXTRACT FROM A MANUSCRIPT DRAMA.

ACT I. SCENE II.

Una.

FAIR MOON! beneath whose blessed light all things
Grow pale and beautiful! beneath whose beams
Yon gloomy woods are tinged so softly bright,
In borrowed beauty waving their tall tops!
Thine, too, is borrowed; and a brighter orb
Sees in thy peaceful face his own rich beams
Reflected with a milder radiance back;
Even as a beauteous mother, gazing down,
Marks her own features in her infant's face!
And he, whose living light gives thee thy rays,
Is but an image of an unseen God!
'T is strange, but not more strange than beautiful,
How all things breathe. But soft; beneath yon trees
Methinks a shadowy form steals on, and now,
Emerging in the light, comes hitherward,
Silent and slow. I know thee now, my Queen!

Ilrica.

Is there no slumber on *thy* couch, my friend?
Why should it shun those lids that never knew
The tears of midnight grief? So young and glad
As thou, why should'st thou quit thy dreams of joy
To wander o'er the dew-damp grass alone?

Una.

It is not late. Look where the western sky
Retains as yet a long, bright, golden stripe,
The footsteps of departed day. 'T were wrong
To close one's eyes when such a beauteous world
Lays forth her prodigality of charms;
Fair, at all times, but fairest surely now.
Breathes there not at this hour a sweeter balm
Wherever the winds go? Methinks the flowers
Send up their richest odours when the dew,
The heavy summer dew, weighs down their heads,
And stars are lighting up a paler day,
And fresher breezes lift their leaves! so cool!
So sweet! bearing the tale which one wild flower
Tells, in its gladness, to another! Hark!
Heard you that note? It was the prelude light
To such a wild and soul-beguiling strain,
As well may serenade the moon and stars
On such a night! It was the nightingale,
Whose little heart is music, sending forth
Her first faint symphony. But listen now!—
Oh, lady! surely now the blest should wake
To praise the hand which blesses them, and those
Who keep Grief's vigils should come forth to gaze,
To pray, and be consoled!

Ilrica.

Alas! alas!
There is a gloom, which even day's bright beams
Can never dissipate! Moonlight, and stars,
And dewy flowers, and those unearthly strains
Of music too, all seem to thee most sweet;
Why should they not? thy careless soul is free
To watch and worship them; to mark apart
Each separate beauty, and to dwell on all
Till it is filled and running o'er with joy
And admiration. The deep sense of beauty,
And bliss, is exquisite in thy young heart;
It may be blunted yet,—as mine hath been.
For I was one like thee. But, oh! the eyes,
Dim with such griefs as mine, behold no more
Aught glad or beautiful,—the memory
Of sorrow darkens all they rest upon.
Kind friend! my grief I know must weary you.
Leave me, dear Una!

Una.

Not in solitude,
To nurse your woes with tears. Chide hence this grief.

Ilrica.

I would not part with it. My grief is dear,
Is precious to me. Will you not go, then?

Una.

And leave you thus desponding? let me stay,
And weep with you.

Ilrica.

My boy, my darling sleeps.
I sat by him until his little tongue
Grew weary telling all his childish thoughts;
And, as the accents died upon his lips,
His head sunk softly down, his soft blue eyes
Closed, and the wind that from the casement came
Wantonly flung the bright hair o'er his cheek,
Half hiding their fresh roses. Still I sat
Holding his small, soft hand, and bending o'er
To mark how regular his little breast
Heaved in his deep, sweet, tranquil sleep. Una!
I almost envied him!

Una.

And yet he sleeps
Beneath a Roman sword.

Ilrica.

Cruel! cruel!
To call me back to misery. Alas!
I only thought how beautiful he looked;
How like were those long lashes to his sires;
How like—

Una.

Nay, lady—

Ilrica.

Hush. Let me go on.
Let me unload my heart; or rather, go—
I sure, at least, may weep alone. Widowed!
A mother, too!

Una.

A mother *now*. And yet
Thou knowest what *may* chance before the moon.

That has not reached her zenith yet, sinks down
Where sunk the sun but now.

Ilrica.

Distress me not.
Is this thy kindness, thus to persevere
In telling o'er the woes I would forget?

Una.

My Queen! it is. The truest kindness oft
Is that which wears the garb of cruelty.
And think'st thou that thy grief could pleasure me?
And if I could, would I not lay me down
Gladly, and die, so that thy tears might cease?
Have I not followed thee through trial and pain?
Have I not suffered, wept, and prayed with thee?
Did not my voice first tell the blessed news
When the saints came to teach the road to life?
'T was I who brought the Apostle to your gate;
And thou, assenting to the truths he taught,
Didst thank me, and didst bid me be thy friend.
And now I *would* be so.

Ilrica.

Say on! my friend.
My harshest and my truest friend!

Una.

I will.
Had you still chidden me, and bade me hence,
I should have braved your frown,—to reach your heart.
To save his life, your boy must hence!

Ilrica.

Again!
Again that hateful subject! Hear me, Una.
I am his mother; never mother yet
Gave from her arms her own, her only child,
Knowing that danger hung around his steps;
Knowing his course must be across the waves,
His friendless home on far and foreign shores,
His nurse a stranger, and his language strange,
While in her clinging arms there yet was strength
To hold and strain him to her bosom! Force—
Force alone—

Una.

Nay, I have done. Forgive me.
His blood be on thy head—

Ilrica.

His blood! whose blood?
How wild you talk!

Una.

My Queen! *I* am not wild.
It is thyself. Presumptuous as I seem
I only live for thee and thine. Alas!
I once had other hopes—they were a dream—
A dream most wild,—and like a dream, they passed.
You understand me not;—'t is better so.
I was about to say,—I know not what.
Pardon, my gracious Queen, th' infirmity
That springs from secret woes, cherished and nurst,
Or rather struggled with, alone.

Ilrica.

Una!
My friend! must that high spirit, too, be crushed?
Can that light heart know other woes than mine?
And woes, too, that I must not share?

Una.

It hath;
And almost broke beneath them,—but 't is over;
I did not claim thine ear, my gracious Queen,
That I might prate of trials now subdued.
True, I have wrestled with them oft and oft,
And smiled, and bade thee smile, when all the while
My heart was breaking. I have done—no more—
Ask me no more. The convalescent feels
His keenest pangs return to hear them named,—
And I my former weakness while I speak.

CRITICAL NOTICES.

Deutsches Lesebuch für Anfänger. German Reader for the Use of Beginners. Cambridge. 1826. pp. 252.

SUCH an introduction to the study of the German language as is furnished by the work before us, was much needed. An acquaintance with this language is becoming daily more important to every man who wishes to keep pace with the progress of knowledge. In all its departments, German students are the most assiduous labourers, and, as a body, furnish the largest contributions to its stock. The literary treasures of this nation are vast, varied, and rapidly multiplying, and demand the attentive study of every one who desires to excel in any branch of intellectual labour. The metaphysician will find it the very home of profound speculation, the native land of intellectual, as truly as of physical gymnastics. For the lover of natural science, the patient research of the German character has accumulated a rich storehouse of facts. The classical scholar has been long familiar with its massy erudition, and, more lately, with its deep investigation into the spirit of antiquity. The professional man, the student of law, physic, or theology, may satisfy the keenest appetite with the fruits of German toil. The lover of belles lettres will here meet with a fresh and beautiful literature, formed by, and breathing the spirit of the age, exulting in the consciousness of vigour and progress, not made up of beautiful relics, but of the finished productions of modern art, equally splendid, and better suited to the wants and the taste of the times. New, rich, and rapidly increasing, it opens a wide and important field to the scholar of every nation, more especially to the nations of German origin. The English and their American descendants find in it much that is akin to their old modes of expression, of thought, and of feeling. Their domestic manners, language, and religion all tend to assimilate them with the German character, rather than with that of the South of Europe. The attentive study which the Germans have bestowed upon English literature, and the copious infusion of its spirit into their own, increase its interest to men whose taste has been formed upon the classics of England.

Esteeming the literature of Germany, as we do, we are glad to see the study of it becoming more and more common among our countrymen. The book before us is valuable to beginners, supplying a deficiency which has been hitherto much felt, the want of a proper collection of reading-lessons. The few German books within the reach of the greater part of young students here, afford them little opportunity of selecting those most suited to their wants,

or of learning the various powers of the language. They needed a work of this kind, consisting of extracts from distinguished authors, arranged according to their relative difficulty, and exhibiting specimens of their different merits. "The object of this book," says the author in his preface, "is to furnish learners with a collection of extracts from acknowledged master-pieces, to exemplify the rules and peculiarities of the language, and, at the same time, to give them an idea of the character of the later literature of Germany." The prose extracts are from Lessing, Wieland, Herder, Göthe, Müller, Schiller, Schlegel, Richter, Tieck, &c. The poetical part is principally made up of the minor poems of Göthe, Schiller, Bürger, and Körner. The selection is well made, and the pieces are well arranged. Being taken from the best models of German composition, they are well fitted to answer the purpose intended, to give the student an idea of the powers of the language and the beauties of the literature, and, by gratifying his taste, to lighten and animate his labour.

Le Traducteur Français; or, a New and Practical System of Translating the French Language. By MARIANO CUBI Y SOLER. Baltimore. 1826. 12mo pp. 392.

IN a former number of the United States Literary Gazette, the "Traductor Español" was recommended as a convenient and useful manual of its kind. The "Traducteur Français," by the same author, is upon a similar plan, and, we believe, will be found of equal use to the student. The selections are well made, and the notes with which they are accompanied, explaining the difficulties, and pointing out the niceties of the French tongue, are very valuable. He who attempts to acquire that language, without the help of a master, will find many idioms, which, even with the aid of the best dictionaries, will remain perfect enigmas to him, and to such a person some guide of this kind is indispensable. For the first twelve pages of the work, an attempt is made to give the reader an idea of the mode in which the text is to be pronounced, by means of corresponding sounds in the English orthography. This is much better done, in the present instance, than we have ever seen it before, but the very nature of the thing forbids that it should be done with much accuracy. Of this the student ought always to be apprised, and the difference between the real sounds of the French alphabet, and those which are supposed to correspond to them in the English, ought, with as much clearness as possible, to be pointed out, in order that he may be put upon ascertaining and mastering the difficulty before a faulty pronunciation is incurably contracted. No intimation is, however, given in this book, that the sounds represented by the English orthography are not pre-

cisely equivalent to those of the French text. The short sound of the French *o* is one which has puzzled grammarians not a little. Sometimes it has been said to correspond with the sound of our *o* in the words *come*, *wonder*, &c., and at other times with another sound of the same vowel, in the words *not*, *order*, &c. Mr Cubi has made choice of the latter. The fact is, however, that neither of these sounds is precisely that of the French vowel, which, although not difficult to acquire from the lips of a master, cannot be said to exist in our language. Instruction in the pronunciation does not, however, form a very important part of the author's plan, nor does a failure in an attempt, which is perhaps impracticable, detract materially from the praise of skill and industry with which the work is otherwise compiled.

A New Spanish Grammar, adapted to every class of Learners. By MARIANO CUBI Y SOLER. Third Edition, revised, corrected, simplified, and much improved. New York. 1826. 12mo. pp. 438.

THE value of this work is, in our opinion, very considerably increased by the changes and additions which have been made in the present edition. On the subject of orthography very minute and particular directions are given. Although the best mode of acquiring the pronunciation of a foreign language is unquestionably by the ear, from the mouth of a native; yet full and accurate observations on the niceties of that pronunciation, are of great value. Our organs, habituated only to vernacular sounds, do not readily discern the difference between sounds that partially resemble each other in the different tongues, and we every day hear people pronouncing foreign languages without seeming to be in the least aware of this. It is something to be told that there is a difference, and to be taught, as nearly as words can teach, what the difference is; it serves, at least, if it does no more, to awaken the attention of the student, and to give it a proper direction. We are glad to find in the present edition, a view of the ancient terminations of the Spanish verbs in juxtaposition with the modern. An accurate knowledge of these is not only extremely convenient, but we should think indispensable to the student of Spanish literature. On the whole, we know of no grammar of this language which we can recommend with more confidence to the public, than the present edition of the work of Cubi. The author has drawn pretty freely from other sources, but as he has done it with great judgment, this is only one of the merits of his book. We can only regret that he has not more fully acknowledged his obligations to the excellent work of M'Henry, which are sufficiently important.

The Rest of the Nations; a Poem. By GRENVILLE MELLEN. Portland. 1826. 8vo. pp. 23.

THE author of this poem is already known to the public by his poetical contributions to the "United States Literary Gazette," most of which have been published, with his name, in the selection of "Miscellaneous Poems," made from this journal. The production before us is one of no inconsiderable merit, and is warmed with the fire of a genine poetic enthusiasm. As compared with some of his former attempts in verse, which we have seen, we should say that it was finished with much less care. It has the appearance of being struck out at a heat, for the public occasion on which it was delivered, and of being committed to the press without much revision. There are also some traces of too great an ambition of brilliancy. The former of these faults the author must correct himself,—time and practice will correct the latter.

This poem was pronounced before the Peace Society of Maine, at their late anniversary; and is taken up with a view of the wars which have desolated the world at different periods, and a consideration of the circumstances which encourage us to hope better things for the future. The following passage, relating to Napoleon, will give the reader an idea of the general style of the poem. It is characterized by a good degree of spirit and effect, along with some faults of imagery and looseness of diction.

Off where the seas look solitary—on
Those black, sharp cliffs, whose desert columns seem
Tombs of a thousand sea-kings—and whose life
Are battlements and cannon—that combine
To give stern proof of habitance and death
To those who seek that wilderness of rock—
Off on those bristling summits at noon-day,
They gave earth's last Destroyer to the worms
His life had been unrivalled—and his death
Unhonoured—distant—solitary—still.
He rose a lion on the paths of men,
And like a lion he died in his own lair;
He had no friends—but worshippers—and some
When his great sun grew occident, to catch
The last rays of his setting. An armed world
Had driven him into exile. He had been
Walking 'mid thrones and palaces, as though
They had been dreams and dust—but which to win,
He gave his parting spirit to the winds,
And fought to madness—storming heaven with crime!
At last he died—upon the pinnacle
Of desolation—prisoned and bereft.
He was not graved with conquerors—alone
As he had moved *on* earth, so *in* it now
He made his biding-place. No monument

Channeled with tears was over him—no hearts
Were welling out their sorrows round his grave,
No pageantry or wonder—friends or foes—
The quick tramp of the sentinel—bright gun—
Shrill fife and volley—and a monarch's clay
Claimed its low turf and dull obscurity.

It may be very old fashioned in us to recommend the free use of the *file* to this writer, but it is only recommending the example of the greatest poets, both ancient and modern. If we did not think well of the material, we should not advise him to waste time in polishing it.

INTELLIGENCE.

Hieroglyphics. These characters have lately found another expositor in Professor Seyffarth, of Leipsic. From the celebrated inscription on the Rosetta stone, and from examining many rolls of papyrus, this laborious inquirer is of opinion, that the hieroglyphics, in general, are hieratic letters, ornamented agreeably to a calligraphic principle. He also infers, that both the hieratic and demotic letters had their origin in the most ancient Phœnician alphabet. The Leipsic Literary Journal, which contains a notice of this theory, mentions further, that the learned professor reckons the hieroglyphic signs, or characters, to amount to about six thousand, as four or more figures are frequently conjoined in the formation of one of them. By arranging and comparing the multitude of ancient Egyptian records on stones and monuments, sarcophagi, papyri, mummy cases, &c. which now abound in Europe, it is probable, we shall, at length, be enabled to decipher this language of the early world.

Egyptian Mummies. The last published portion of the London "Philosophical Transactions" (for 1825, Part II.) contains an essay on Egyptian mummies, including an account of the examination of one purchased at Gournou, and presented to Dr Granville, the author of the article, from which the following particulars are extracted. The mummy in question was contained in a case, apparently of sycamore wood, and very skilfully enveloped. "There is no species of bandage, which ancient or modern surgery has devised, described, or employed, that did not appear to have been used, in securing the surface of the mummy from the external air; and these were repeated so many times, that, on weighing the whole mass of them after their removal, they were found to weigh twenty-eight pounds avoirdupois." The general surface of the body was of a deep brown colour, and quite dry; the larger muscles soft, and yielding slightly to the pressure; the skin removed, except at the ends of the fingers and toes. The dimensions of the subject, which was a female, were nearly those of the Venus de' Medici, and its symmetry tends to confirm Cuvier's opinion of the Caucasian, rather than Ethiopian origin

of the Egyptians. The mummies before examined, had been generally found to be little more than skeletons, while this, though probably more than three thousand years old, was, at least externally, a perfect body. The intestines had been partially removed, and their place supplied by resin, myrrh, and argillaceous earth. The brain had been withdrawn through the nostrils, probably by means of some chemical agent employed to decompose it. The preservation of the subject is such, that the examiner conceives himself able to determine at what age, and of what disease the individual died; and the muscles could be separated with the same ease as in a recent subject. The art of embalming, with a view to the preservation of the human body for many years, as illustrated by the mummies of Egypt, does not appear to have been practised with success by any other nation. The mummies of Mexico, those of the Atlantic islanders, and the dried bodies found in the catacombs of some of the states bordering on the Mediterranean, are but of yesterday, compared with the age of the present specimen. Indeed, the art soon began to decline among the Egyptians themselves. In order to appreciate properly the durability of the bodies prepared by the Egyptian process, it is essential to observe, that the mummy described, after having resisted putrefaction for above three thousand years, covered by bandages, inclosed in a thick wooden case, and placed in recesses far from the influence of atmospheric vicissitude, has since withstood the inclemency and variations of an English climate, without any of those protecting circumstances; nay, exposed purposely, but ineffectually, for four years, to the various causes that are known to to favour putrefaction." Dr Granville, after a careful dissection and examination, thinks that he has discovered the materials and the process employed to produce this durability. The body seemed to have undergone a process similar to that of tanning, as the skin exhibited the appearance of leather. It had also been impregnated with a saline solution, as was evident from the appearance of a great number of saline crystals on its external and internal surface, after it had been exposed for a time to the air. The most important substance used, however, seems to have been a liquefied mixture of wax and bitumen, with which the bones, membranes, and muscles of this subject were thoroughly saturated. The wax, the Doctor extracted in great quantities, and came to the conclusion, that the art of embalming consisted mainly in impregnating the body with it. The name itself of mummy, he derives from the word *mum*, which, in the Cophtic language, means *wax*. By subjecting the body of a still-born child to the process which he supposes the Egyptians to have employed, Dr Granville made a mummy, which has been exposed to all varieties of temperature for more than three years, without any covering, and without the slightest vestige of decay. And, on the other hand, parts of the Egyptian mummy, from which he had extracted the preserving ingredients, putrified rapidly.

Fossil Fish. A beautiful fossil fish was lately excavated from a rock of blue lias, on the beach, between Charmouth and Lyme, England. It is about fifteen inches in length, and eleven inches broad, and is exceedingly perfect even in the most delicate parts of the eyes.

Subterranean Tree. A subterranean oak tree, containing upwards of three hundred solid feet of wood in a good state of preservation, was lately taken up in Ruskington fen, Lincolnshire, England. Although

there are yearly large quantities of such remains of antiquity discovered, and forced from their long unmolested beds, in that and the neighbouring fens, perhaps none of equal size had before been drawn from its obscurity, excepting one which was dug up in Walcott Dales in 1811, which is said to have contained four hundred solid feet of timber.

River Navigation. Mr Mathew Robertson, of Glasgow, has contrived a float, similar in principle to those used by the Dutch, for enabling a loaded ship to pass up and down rivers, whose depth is not equal to her usual draught of water. It consists of a decked, flat-bottomed boat, twice or thrice the size of the ship, with an opening in the middle, large enough to receive her. This flat-boat is formed in two pieces, which are united by a strong hinge at the prow, and a strong clasp at the stern. The clasp being loosened, the two sides of the boat are made to diverge; the ship sails into the open space in the middle; after which the sides are again closed and fastened. Four strong chains, or more if necessary, are then passed across under the ship's bottom, and attached to screws fixed to the deck of the float; the screws are then worked by wheels and pinions; the chains are shortened; and the vessel is gradually raised by transferring the pressure to the float. The weight of the vessel is thus diffused over a surface twice, or if need be, thrice the size of her own hull, and of course the draught of water is proportionally diminished. It may thus be effected, that a ship, drawing sixteen feet of water, being raised nine feet by the chains, shall depress the float three feet, and so her actual draught will be reduced to ten feet.

Telescopes. Mr Tully, of Islington, England, has constructed an achromatic telescope, the largest and most perfect yet made in England. The object-glass is seven inches in diameter; the glass was manufactured at Neufchatel, in Switzerland, and cost about thirty pounds; the grinding and adjusting of it by Mr Tully are valued at two hundred pounds, viz. for the compound object-glass alone. The length of the telescope is twelve feet. The magnifying powers range from two hundred to seven hundred and eighty times; but the great excellence of the telescope consists in the superior distinctness and brilliancy with which objects are seen through it, rather than in its magnifying power. With a power of two hundred and forty, the light of Jupiter is almost too intense for the eye to bear, and his satellites appear as bright as Sirius, but with a clear and steady light, and all the belts and spots upon the face of the planet are most distinctly defined. With a power of near four hundred, Saturn appears large and well defined, and is one of the most beautiful objects that can well be conceived. The great advantage which this telescope possesses over reflecting telescopes of equal size, is the greater degree of light, by which the most delicate objects in the heavens are rendered distinct and brilliant.

Variation of the Magnetic Needle. It appears by Mr Kupffer's observations, that, on the thirteenth of November, 1825, the magnetic needle exhibited at Kasan (Russia) a very sensible and unusual variation. On the same day, and at the same hour, exactly the same phenomenon was observed at Paris; and it has been ascertained, that precisely at the same time, a vivid aurora borealis was visible in the north of Scotland. It is a remarkable fact, that, although the aurora borealis is now rarely seen at Paris, the magnetic needle is no less sensibly affected by all the phenomena of that kind, which appear in the polar regions.

Poisonous Wounds. A successful application of the cupping-glass to poisonous wounds, has lately been made by Dr Barry, at Paris. It appears as if the action of the cupping-glass had the power of recalling to the exterior the poison already introduced into the vessels. Dr Barry strongly recommends the use of the cupping-glass, followed by that of the cautery, in cases of the bite of the mad-dog, even if the first symptoms of hydrophobia have shown themselves.

Curious Relic. A Greenock newspaper mentions the discovery of a curious piece of antiquity in a quarry, which is wrought in that part of Scotland. It is described to be a silver or mixed metallic horse-shoe, connected with a petrifaction of wood, and both imbedded five feet and a half deep in the solid rock. This situation refers it to a period so remote, that even an antediluvian origin is attributed to it.

Population, &c. of Great Britain. In Great Britain, the number of individuals in a state to bear arms, from the age of fifteen to that of sixty, is 2,744,847. The number of marriages is about 98,030 yearly, and it has been remarked, that one out of twenty-one is without issue. The number of deaths is about 332,708 yearly. The deaths among the women are in proportion to those of the men as fifty to fifty-four. The married women live longer than those who continue in a state of celibacy. In the country, the mean number of children from each marriage, is four; in towns the proportion is seven for every two marriages. The married women are to the whole number of females as one to three, and the number of married men to the whole number of males, as three to five. The number of widows is to that of the widowers as three to one, but the number of widows who marry again, is to that of the widowers as seven to four. The half of the individuals born, die before attaining the age of seventeen years. The number of twins is to that of ordinary births, as one to sixty-five. One individual only in three thousand one hundred and twenty-six, according to calculation, attains the age of an hundred years. The male births are to the female as ninety-six to ninety-five.

Vaccination. In several countries of Europe, general vaccination is ordered by government. No one who has not had the cow-pox or small-pox, can be put to school, apprenticed, or married. Small-pox inoculation is prohibited; if it appears in any house, the house is put under quarantine. By such means, the mortality from the small-pox in 1818, had been prodigiously lessened. In Copenhagen, it was reduced from 5,500 during twelve years, to 158 during sixteen years. In Prussia, it was reduced from 40,000 annually, to less than 3,000; and in Berlin, in 1819, only twenty-five persons died of the disease. In Bavaria, only five persons died of small-pox in eleven years, and in the principality of Anspach, it was completely exterminated. In England, on the contrary, crowds of the poor go unvaccinated; they are permitted not only to imbibe the small-pox themselves, but to go abroad and scatter the venom among those they meet. A few years ago, it broke out in Norwich, and carried off more persons in one year, than had ever been destroyed in that city by any one disease, except the plague. A similar epidemic raged at Edinburgh; and last year it destroyed 1,299 in London

Translation of Boethius. By the industry and research of Mr Leman, very interesting discoveries have been lately made in the English State

Paper Office. Amongst other valuable papers, an entire translation of Boethius, by Queen Elizabeth; the prose in the handwriting of Her Majesty's secretary, and the whole of the poetry the queen's own autograph. Parts of a poetical translation of Horace, written by the queen, have likewise been found. Nearly all the documents connected with the principal events which occurred during the reign of Henry VIII., especially the king's various divorces, have likewise been brought to light, particularly the whole case of Catharine Howard. It is intended to submit these literary and historical relics to His Majesty.

Burmese Idol. Captain Coe, commander of the English squadron in the East Indies, has presented to the Cambridge University an alabaster statue of a Burmese idol, taken from the sacred grove near Ava, and two religious books, beautifully executed on the Palmyra leaf, to which none but the Burmese priests are permitted to have access.

Intensity of Light. An interesting experiment has been lately performed in the armoury of the Tower of London, in which the most intense light ever yet produced by art, was exhibited. It was effected by directing a jet of burning alcohol or the flames of a spirit-lamp upon a piece of lime, by the action of a stream of oxygen gas. The light is calculated to be eighty times more intense than an equal area emitted by the combustion of an argand lamp. It is said to be visible at a distance of an hundred and twenty miles. No satisfactory explanation has been hitherto given; but it appears that other earths will also exhibit the same brilliancy, when heated by the means above described. The peculiar earth, termed Zircon, is found to be pre-eminent in this property. Its value for the purposes of a signal will readily suggest itself.

Comets. It is now certain, that the same comet has appeared in our planetary system in the years 1786, 1795, 1801, 1805, 1818, and 1825. It appears, that in its course, it never passes the orbit of Jupiter. The period of its revolution (which is the shortest known) very little exceeds three years and a quarter; and its mean distance from the sun is not more than twice that of the earth. It seems to be especially connected with the system in which our globe is placed, and crosses our orbit more than sixty times in a century. M. Olbers, the celebrated astronomer of Bremen, who has bestowed much attention on this comet, has been lately occupied in calculating its possible influence on the destinies of our globe. He finds, that in 83,000 years, this comet will approach the earth as nearly as the moon; and, that in 4,000,000 years, it will come within a distance of 7,700 geographical miles; the consequence of which will be, if its attraction be equal to that of the earth, the elevation of the waters of the ocean 13,000 feet; that is to say, above the tops of all the European mountains, except Mont Blanc. The inhabitants of the Andes and of the Himalaya mountains alone, will escape this second deluge; but they will not benefit by their good fortune more than 216,000,000 years; for it is probable, that, at the expiration of that time, our globe, standing right in the way of the comet, will receive a shock severe enough to occasion its utter destruction.

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